

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

Established July, 1836,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME XXXII

JANUARY, 1855.

NUMBER I.

CONTENTS OF NO. I., VOL. XXXII.

ARTICLES.

ART.	PAGE.
I. MOVE. By HENRY C. CAREY, Esq., author of "Principles of Political Economy." "The Past, Present, and Future," "The Harmony of Interests, Agricultural, Manufacturing, and Commercial," etc., etc., of New Jersey.....	19
II. PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES.—Emigration—The Probabilities of Life—The Deaf and Dumb, the Blind, the Insane, and the Idiotic Population—The future Increase of Population—Growth of the Atlantic and Western States—The Slaveholding and Non-slaveholding States Compared—Religion—Juvenile and Popular Instruction—Newspapers, Periodicals, etc. By the Hon. GEORGE TUCKER, late Professor of Moral Philosophy and Political Economy in the University of Virginia, and formerly Representative in Congress from the same State, etc.....	38
III. A STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE STATE OF ILLINOIS.—No. II. Soil and Productions. By JOHN LEWIS PEYTON, Esq., of Chicago, Illinois.....	56
IV. MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY—HON. MARSHALL PINCKNEY WILDER, OF MASSACHUSETTS.....	64

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

Shipowners—Goods Delivered and Accepted.....	78
Assignees.....	79
Bottomry Bond by British Consul—Ship Deserted.....	79
Supplies furnished a Master—Lien—Walver.....	80
Liability of Bankers for the due Appropriation of Letters of Credit.....	80

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW:

EMBRACING A FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC., ILLUSTRATED WITH TABLES, ETC., AS FOLLOWS:

Increased Irregularity in Commercial Affairs—Bank Panic—Hoarding of the Precious Metals—Reckless Banking, with its Inevitable Results—Defalcations and Embezzlements—Speculation Delayed, not Extinguished—Prospects of Improvement—Rates of Foreign Exchange—The Pressure less felt at the South—Repeal of the Usury Laws—Condition of the Banks of New York City and State—Boston and Massachusetts, New Orleans and Ohio—Deposits at the New York Assay Office, and Deposits and Coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans Mints—Official Statement of Imports and Exports at all the United States Ports for the fiscal Year ending June 30th, 1854—Cash Duties at New York and Philadelphia—Foreign Imports, both of General Merchandise and Dry Goods, at New York, for the Month of November, and since January 1st—Exports from New York to foreign ports for November, and since January 1st—Exports of Leading Articles of Produce—Prospective Shipments from this Country, and indications of Future Trade, etc.....	81-91
---	-------

New York Cotton Market.....	91
-----------------------------	----

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

	PAGE.
Cotton—its Value, Growth, and Export.....	93
Statistics of the Trade and Commerce of Mobile in 1853-54	94
Statistics of the Coffee Trade	97
British Consumption and Duties on Tobacco	98
British Consumption, &c., and Duties on Tea and Coffee	98
British Imports of Cotton, and Exports of Cotton and Linen Goods.	99
Commerce of Shanghai in 1853.....	99
Export of Rags from Great Britain to America	100

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

Liability of Insurers for Goods stolen at Fires	100
Of Property Insured when seized by a Foreign Government	102
How the Paid Fire Department works in Cincinnati	103

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

Statistical History of Cheap Postage in England	104
The Mint of France	105
The Development of Wealth in Ohio	106
Financial condition of Brazil.....	107
Guards against Frauds in Banks.....	109
Indiana Free Bank Meeting	109
The Income Tax of England	110

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

Reciprocity Treaty—British North American Colonies	110
Of the Importation of Blankets.....	111
Of the classification of certain Articles of Cotton.....	112
Application of Reciprocity Treaty.—Of Bonds for Transportation of Merchandise	112

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

Needles Channel and entrance to Portsmouth, England—Pescoc's Refuge Buoy Beacons.....	113
Coast of Sweden, Bohus Bay—Change in the Koster Lights.—Delaware Bay	113
Fourteen Feet Bank.—Pea Patch Spit.—Bulkhead Spit.....	113
Lighthouse on Winga Point.....	114

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

The Flax Industry of Russia.....	114
Beans and Peas.—Cattle : with Statistics of the Export of their Product.	116
History and Statistics of Flax and Hemp	119

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

The Railways of the United States. By DAVID M. BALFOUR, Esq., of Massachusetts	122
--	-----

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

Free Colored Population of the United States	131
--	-----

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

Iron Mines and Iron Trade of Ohio and Cincinnati	133
--	-----

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

Past and Present Position of the Merchant	135
---	-----

THE BOOK TRADE.

Notice of new Books or new Editions	137-144
---	---------

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JANUARY, 1855.

Art. I.—MONEY.

THE power of man over matter is limited to effecting changes of place and of form. To enable him to accomplish the first, he requires wagons, horses, ships, and railroads; and to do the same by the latter, he requires spades, plows, mills, furnaces, and steam-engines. Among men, changes of ownership are to be effected, and for that purpose they require the aid of some general medium of circulation.

In the early periods of society man has little to exchange, and there are consequently few exchanges. The few that are made, are by direct barter, skins being given for knives, clothing, or food. By degrees, however, with the progress of population and wealth, all communities are seen to have endeavored to facilitate the transfer of property by the adoption of some common standard, by help of which to measure the value of the commodities to be exchanged, and thus cattle were used among the early Greeks; while slaves and cattle, or "living money," as it was then denominated, were commonly in use among the Anglo-Saxons, as now among the negro tribes of Africa.

Under such circumstances, however, exchanges were tedious of negotiation, and were attended with vast waste of labor consequent upon the difficulty of finding persons who at one and the same time stood in need of a commodity and possessed some other one that the holder of the first was willing to accept in return for it.

The diversity of employments was then exceedingly small. Where all are farmers or shepherds, all have the same commodities with which they desire to part, and all find it difficult to sell preparatory to making a purchase. With further progress, we find man everywhere to have been engaged in removing the difficulty, and for that purpose adopting successively iron, copper, and bronze, preparatory to obtaining silver and gold to be used as the machinery for effecting exchanges from

hand to hand among the members of the several communities, and among the communities themselves.

The recommendations of those metals for the purpose are great. Being scantily diffused throughout the earth, and requiring therefore much labor for their collection, they represent a large amount of value, while themselves of little bulk, and therefore capable of being readily and securely stored, or transported from place to place. Not being liable to rust or damage, they may be preserved uninjured for any length of time, and their supply is consequently much less liable to variation than wheat, corn, or any other of the fruits of the earth, whose crops are so largely dependent upon the contingencies of the weather, and cannot for any length of time be preserved. Capable of minute subdivision, they can be as well used for the performance of exchanges to the extent of a single cent as for those of millions of dollars; and the readers of a penny paper know how vast an amount of exchanges is performed by help of a coin of one cent, that could not be performed at all were there none in use of less value than even five or ten cents.

To facilitate their use, the various communities of the world are accustomed to have them cut into small pieces and weighed, after which, they are so stamped as to enable every one to discern at once how much gold or silver is offered him in exchange for the commodity he has to sell; but the value of the piece is in no manner due to this process of coinage. In the early periods of society all the metals passed in bars, requiring, of course, to be weighed, and such is now the case with much of the gold that passes between California and Europe. Gold dust has also to be weighed, and allowance has to be made for the impurities with which the gold itself is connected; but with this exception, it is of precisely the same value with gold passed from the mint and stamped with an eagle, a head of Victoria, or of Nicholas.

The machinery of exchange in use among men is, therefore, of three kinds—that required for producing changes of place, that required for effecting changes of form, and lastly, that used for effecting changes of ownership; and if we now examine the course of proceeding with regard to them, we shall find it to be the same in all, thus furnishing proof of the universality of the natural laws to whose government man is subject.

In the early periods of society, the obstacles to changes of place are numerous and great. Roads are then but Indian paths, and transportation is effected by help of the shoulders and backs of men, and the value of the commodity at market is but little more than the charge for transportation. The producer of the grain then receives for his share a very small proportion of the cloth given for it by the weaver, while the latter receives but a small proportion of the wheat given by the cultivator of the earth, and both continue poor, while the transporter grows rich, as is shown by the vast wealth accumulated by the Fuggers, the Medici, and other "merchant princes" of the middle ages. The real parties to all exchanges are the producers and the consumers, both of whom are led at length to see how greatly their condition would be improved by diminishing the power of the machine by which exchanges are effected, even where it cannot be altogether eliminated by bringing the two together and enabling them to maintain their commerce free from any charge for intermediate agency.

With this object in view, the path is gradually converted into a road,

which next is paved with stone, and is at length superseded entirely by the railroad, while the slow-going mule is superseded by the rapidly-moving engine. With every step in this direction, we find a diminution in the proportion of the transporter, and consequent increase of that divided between the producer and the consumer. Increased power of association, increased motion manifested by a great increase of production and consumption, and increased individuality among the members of the community, are then accompanied by a rapid increase in the power of accumulating machinery to be used in aid of further progress.

So, too, in the work of conversion. In the early periods of society, the quantity of labor that intervenes between the production of grain and the consumption of bread, is very great. The producer has to grind his rye or his wheat between stones, and a considerable portion of his time is thus occupied when it could be better employed in increasing the quantity of grain. By degrees, the grist-mill comes nearer to him, and he saves much time by going to it, although it is still far distant. Population and wealth, however, increase. A new mill is established in his immediate neighborhood, and he now exchanges directly with the miller, saving nearly all the time that before he had wasted on the road, and the consumers of food by whom he is surrounded now obtain nearly all the wheat given for the cloth, while its producer obtains nearly all the cloth given for the wheat.

We have here precisely the same results as those obtained from the improvement of roads, but on a larger scale, because the savings are of a more minute character, and therefore more operative throughout the various portions of society. The miller and the cloth-maker require help, and as their operations are less severe than those of the field, they bring into use the labor of many persons who would otherwise be idle, and render useful many commodities that would otherwise be wasted; and thus it is that increased power of combination is seen to be so invariably attended with increased motion and increased production and consumption, with rapid increase in the power of accumulation.

Nevertheless, with all these improvements, without some standard for the comparison of values in general estimation, and susceptible of being readily placed away in security until required, exchanges would still be very small indeed. The farmer would not need wheat from his brother farmer, and yet the latter might have nothing else to offer him for his cow or calf. The miller might not need cloth from the clothier, though always ready to receive wheat.

To remove these obstacles between producer and consumer, gold and silver are purchased, and they are then divided into small pieces, by help of which the farmer, the miller, the clothier, and all other members of society, are enabled to effect exchanges, even to the extent of purchasing for a single cent their share of the labors of thousands and tens of thousands of men employed in making railroads, engines, and cars, and transporting upon them annually hundreds of millions of letters; or, for another cent, their share of the labor of the hundreds, if not thousands, of men who have in various manners contributed to the production of a penny newspaper. The small coin is thus a *saving fund* for labor, because it gives utility to thousands of millions of minutes that would be wasted did not a demand exist for them at the moment the power to labor was produced. Labor is the first price given for everything we value, and it is the com-

modity that all have to offer in exchange; and the progress of all communities in wealth and power is in the direct ratio of the presence or absence of an *instant* demand for the labor of each and every man in the community resulting from the existence of a power on the part of each and every other man to offer something valuable in exchange for it. It is the only commodity that perishes at the instant of production, and that, if not then put to use, is wasted.

The reader of this article is momentarily producing labor power and constantly taking in the fuel by whose consumption it is produced, and that fuel is wasted unless its product be on the instant usefully employed. The most delicate fruits or flowers may be kept for hours or days; but labor power cannot be kept even for a second. That the instant power of profitable consumption may be coincident with the instant production of this universal commodity, there must be incessant combination, followed by incessant division and subdivision, and that in turn followed by as incessant recombination. This is seen in the case referred to, where coal, iron ore, and lead miners, furnace men, machine makers, rag gatherers, carters, bleachers and makers of bleaching powders, paper makers, railroad and canal men, type makers, compositors, pressmen, authors, editors, publishers, newsboys, and hosts of others, combine their efforts for the production in market of a heap of newspapers that has, at the instant of production, to be divided off into portions fitting the pockets of hundreds of thousands of consumers. Each of these pays one cent, and then perhaps subdivides it among half a dozen others, so that the cost to each of its readers is perhaps no more than a single cent per week; and yet, each obtains his share of the labors of each and all of the persons by whom it was produced.

Improvements in the modes of transportation are advantageous to man, but the service they render is very small when compared with their cost. A ship that has cost forty or fifty thousand dollars cannot effect exchanges between men at opposite sides of the Atlantic to an extent exceeding five or six thousand tons per annum, whereas a furnace of the same cost will effect the transmutation of thirty thousand tons weight of coal, ore, limestone, food, and clothing, into iron; but the exchanges effected by its aid will not exceed a value of a hundred or a hundred and fifty thousand dollars. Let these be compared with the exchanges effected in a year by the help of fifty thousand dollars' worth of little white pieces representing labor to the extent of three or five cents—labor which by their help is gathered up into a heap, and then divided and subdivided day after day throughout the year, and it will be found that the service rendered to society in economizing labor by each dollar's worth of money is greater than is rendered by hundreds, if not thousands, employed in manufactures, or tens of thousands in ships or railroads; and yet there are able writers who tell us that the money which circulates throughout a country is so much "dead capital," and that is "an important portion of the capital of a country that produces nothing for the country."

Others mourn over the cost of maintaining the currency, as if it were altogether lost, while expatiating on the advantages of canals and railroads—not perceiving, apparently, that while the operations of the two are identical in character, the removal of obstacles between the producer and the consumer, the money that could be carried in a bag

and that would scarcely lose in weight with a service of half a dozen years, would, and does, effect more exchanges and economize more labor than could be effected by a fleet of ships, many of which would at the close of such a period of service, be rotting on the shores on which they had been stranded, while the remainder would already have lost one-half of their original value.

If we now look to those countries in which roads are best and most numerous, we shall find that it is there that new roads are most readily made. The reason why it is so is, that by reason of the great power of association, there is great economy of labor, accompanied by a constant decrease in the proportion required for present food and clothing, and corresponding increase in the proportion that may be applied to the production of machinery required for further improvement. In such countries motion increases in a geometrical ratio, because of the removal of obstructions to direct association between the producer and the consumer, the real parties to all exchanges, the trader and transporter being only the instruments by help of which the exchanges are effected.

It is here, as everywhere, that the first step is the most difficult. Russia finds it difficult to obtain her first railroad, whereas England makes them when she pleases. India is totally unable to make a road for herself, and Ireland is little better; whereas Belgium has been made a network of roads. New England and New York make roads by thousands of miles; while Arkansas has, perhaps, her first mile of railroad yet to make.

So is it with the machinery of conversion. The first step is here again the most difficult; and hence it is that we see communities so often aiding in its establishment. Mills and furnaces can readily be built in England, because of the great economy of labor resulting from the existence of previous machinery of similar kind; and yet India cannot build either furnaces or mills, although she has fuel, ore, and cotton in great abundance. New England, where mills exist, can build more mills; but Illinois and Wisconsin cannot, and their people are therefore forced to depend on machinery of transportation, of all others the most costly in proportion to the service rendered.

So again with money, in regard to which the first step is, everywhere, the most difficult. Those nations which have it, find little difficulty in increasing their store; while those which have it not, can scarcely obtain or retain any of it; and this is quite as true of them as it is of individuals. At an early period, and indeed until within the last century, it tended towards India, which then was rich; but India now is poor, and the tendency is in a contrary direction.

In default of metallic money, the Anglo-Saxons used slaves and cattle; but now the tendency of the gold of the world is towards England, and through that country, to the richer of the communities of the continent. Money gravitates towards money, and the faster the accumulation of the precious metals in any country, the greater is there the power to purchase more to be used for the various purposes for which they are required in the arts; for with every step in this direction, there is increased power of association, increased production and consumption, and increased power of accumulation, resulting from the increased facility of exchange. That such was everywhere the case, was remarked a century since by Hume, who told his readers that—

"In every kingdom into which money begins to flow in greater abundance than formerly everything takes a new face: labor and industry gain life; the merchant becomes more enterprising, the manufacturer more diligent and skillful; and even the farmer follows his plow with more alacrity and attention."—*Essay on Money.*

This is in accordance with the observation of every one who will read this article. When money flows in everything is animated and every man can sell his labor, because exchanges are then rapid. When, on the contrary, it flows out motion diminishes and labor is wasted. At one place in which hundreds of men have been accustomed to combine their effort for the production of commodities to be divided among the owners of one, two, and three cent pieces, work ceases, and the people before employed in it cease to have such pieces to offer, and this produces stoppage elsewhere; and if the outward flow of the metals be long continued, the stoppage of motion gradually extends itself to all portions of society until at length paralysis takes place, as was so nearly the case among ourselves, in 1842—in England in 1847—and as may now be observed in various parts of this country at the present moment. Let the flow be reversed and establish an inward current of the precious metals, and at once motion will be reproduced, commencing with one description of trade and gradually extending itself to all others, as was the case with us in the period between 1843 and 1847. All power results from motion, and whenever the latter decreases there must inevitably be a decrease of the former, as is here now seen to be the case. From day to day machine shops are being closed, and men are rendered unable to exchange their labor, and of course deprived of the ability to aid in furnishing a market for the labor of others, and thus is being produced a vast waste of that labor power which results from the consumption of food, while the necessity for food continues as great as ever, and even increases from day to day with the steady growth of population. Were the directors of a railroad company to keep all their engines fully supplied with fuel, producing steam to run to waste, ruin would be predicted as likely to be the result of such mismanagement, and yet nations permit millions of human engines to be constantly consuming fuel while applying to no use the power that is produced.

Of all the machinery in use among men there is none that exercises upon their actions so great an influence as that which—as money—gathers up and divides and subdivides, and then gathers up again to be on the instant divided and subdivided again, the minutes and quarter hours of a community. It is the machinery of association, and the indispensable machinery of progress, and therefore it is that we see in all new or poor communities so constant an effort to obtain something to be used in place of it, as is shown in many of the states of Europe where irredeemable paper constitutes the sole medium of exchange. Throughout the states of the West we see an unceasing effort to obtain something that can be used as currency, and whole communities using it even when of somewhat questionable character. So well is this want understood that many Eastern banks supply notes for the express purpose of Western circulation, and the people there receive them and pass them from hand to hand because any money is better than none, and good they cannot get, for the reason that metallic money always flows from the place where the charge for its use is high to that at which it is low, as is now seen to be every day the case. The rate

of interest in the West is at present enormous, but every day witnesses the export of gold to New York, where it is somewhat cheaper, and yet even the high interest of that city—now ranging from one to two-and-a-half per cent per month—cannot prevent it from going to France and England where it can command only four or five per cent per annum. Money thus obeys the same law as water. The latter falls on the hills, but from the moment of its fall it never stops until it reaches the ocean, nor does the gold of California or the silver of Mexico stop until it reaches the great ocean of trade, *where interest on money is always low*. Why this is so, we may now examine.

Where roads are good, new ones, as has been shown, can be cheaply made, because of the facility of transportation on the old ones. Where machinery of conversion abounds new machinery may be cheaply made. Where the machinery of exchange, called money, abounds further supplies may be cheaply bought, because of the wonderful effect produced by that combination of labor which results from association. It is where money is cheap so far as regards interest, that it is dear as regards all the finished commodities required for the use of the men who work gold mines or cultivate the earth. A piece of gold will buy far more cloth in Britain than in California, and it goes to the former to yield four per cent interest when it might stay in the latter to pay thirty or forty per cent. For the same reason it goes from Illinois to Boston, from Mississippi to Providence, from New York to Belgium and Germany, from Brazil to Paris, and from India to Manchester and Birmingham, and the faster it goes the stronger is the tendency towards the acceleration of its passage.

The greater the quantity of gold sent to the great manufacturing centers of the earth, the lower will be the rate of interest there, the greater the facility of constructing new roads and mills, and the greater that of making those exchanges from hand to hand for accomplishing which money is so entirely indispensable. Directly the reverse effect is produced in the country from which it is exported, and in which, by reason of its export, the supply diminishes. With every day old mills and old furnaces are closed, and with each there is a diminution in the power to make exchanges of labor, as a consequence of which more of that great commodity is wasted than is profitably used. With every step in this direction there is an increase in the necessity for going to the great centers of trade with the few rude products of the earth that will bear transportation to distant markets.

We are told, however, that the only effect of an increase of the supply of gold and silver is that of "heightening the price of commodities and obliging every one to pay more of those little yellow or white pieces for every thing he purchases." Were that really the case, it would be somewhat extraordinary to see money always, century after century, passing in the same direction, to the countries that are rich from those that are poor, and so poor that they cannot afford to keep as much of it as is absolutely necessary for their own exchanges. The gold of Siberia leaves a country in which so little circulates that labor and its products are at the lowest prices, to find its way to St. Petersburg, where it will purchase much less labor and much less of wheat or hemp; but even there it cannot stay, and it travels abroad so rapidly that the people of Russia are compelled to use paper roubles to enable them to make their exchanges. So is it in all the countries that export raw produce; and so it must be, be-

cause it *will* go to those countries that buy such produce and finish it to be ready for use; and in these latter money will always be at a low rate of interest, while its owner will be enabled to purchase cheaply clothing and other of the conveniences and comforts of life. It would seem thus that increase in the supply of money, so far from having the effect of causing men to give two pieces for an article that could before have been had for one, has, on the contrary, that of enabling them to *obtain for one piece the commodity that before had cost them two*, and that such is the case can readily be shown.

Money tends to diminish the obstacles interposed between the producer and the consumer, precisely as do railroads and mills, and all of them tend to the raising of the value of labor and land, while cheapening all the finished products of labor, and largely increasing the rewards of the agriculturist. Every diminution in the competition of railroads tends to lessen the value of labor and land. So does every diminution in the number of mills and furnaces, and so in a still greater degree does every diminution in the supply of money—whereas, increase in one or all of these tends to produce exactly the reverse effects. Why such is the case is, that with every improvement in the character of the machinery of exchange, the *proportion* of the transporter, miller, or owner of money is diminished, and more is left to be divided between the producer and the consumer, both of whom obtain larger wages, and are enabled to accumulate capital to be applied to the improvement of the land, or the conversion of its products; and the more that is thus applied the cheaper will be the products of the garden and the factory. It is within the knowledge of all, that manufactures of all kinds have greatly fallen in price, and that the quantity of cotton cloth that can now be obtained for one dollar is as great as would formerly have cost five dollars, *and that the reduction has taken place in the very countries into which the gold of the world has steadily flowed, and into which it now is flowing*, from which it would seem that prices of commodities tend to fall as money comes in, while land and labor tend to rise in price. The gold of California and Australia now goes to Germany, France, Belgium, and Great Britain, where money is plenty and interest is low, because there manufactured commodities are cheap and money is valuable *when measured by them*. It does not go to Spain, Italy, Portugal, or Turkey, because there manufactured goods are dear, and land and labor are cheap. It does not stop in Mississippi, Arkansas, or Texas, because there too manufactures are dear and land and labor are cheap—but there it will stop at some future period when it shall have been ascertained that the plow and the harrow should always be the near neighbors of the spindle and the loom.

It has been said above that garden vegetables and green crops tend steadily to decline in price in all those countries into which money is flowing, and the reason for this is, that improvements in agriculture always accompany manufactures, and manufactures always attract the precious metals. It is within the knowledge of every one familiar with the operations of the West that while corn and pork are there always cheap, cabbages, peas, beans, and all green crops are invariably scarce and dear, and so continue until, as around Cincinnati, Pittsburgh, and some few other places, population and wealth have given a stimulus to agriculture. In England the increase of green crops of all kinds has been immense, attend-

ed with decline in price, and in France a recent writer* informs us that, notwithstanding the increase in the quantity of money, the price of wine is scarcely more than one-fourth of what it was at the date of the discovery of this continent. By another, we are told that "every man in France of forty years of age must have remarked the sensible diminution in the price of garden produce, fruits of all kinds, flowers, &c., and that most of the oleaginous grains and plants used in manufactures have fallen in like manner, while beets, carrots, beans, &c., have become so common that they are now fed to animals in the stable."†

In further confirmation of this view, we may take the average prices of labor and wheat in France for the last century and a half, as given by *M. de Jonnes*, one of the highest authorities of that country:—

	Annual wages of an agricultural family. franca.	Average price of wheat per hectoliter. franca.
Under Louis XIV.....	135	18.85
" XV.....	126	13.05
" XVI.....	161	16.00
Napoleon	400	21.00
Louis Philippe.....	500	19.03

We see thus that while the money price of labor has almost quadrupled, the price of wheat at the close was scarcely more than at the commencement. We are also assured that the wages of artisans have quadrupled within a century, and that the utmost increase in the price of wheat has been twenty-five per cent.‡ In the same period the increase in the price of land has been immensely great.

Food thus becomes more abundant in those countries into which gold is steadily flowing, and it becomes less abundant in those from which the gold flows, as is seen in Virginia, which has steadily exhausted her land—in Turkey—in Portugal—in India—and in all those countries land and labor are low in price. Give them manufactures, thus enabling them to combine their efforts, and they will obtain and retain gold, and then they will make roads, and the supplies of food will steadily increase as cloth and iron become cheaper, and land and labor will then rise in price. The most necessary part of the machinery of exchange is that which facilitates the passage of labor and its products from hand to hand, and any diminution of its quantity is felt with tenfold the severity of a diminution of the quantity of railroad-cars or steamboats, because of the enormous amount of the exchanges that may be made from hand to hand compared with those that are made between men that are distant from each other; nevertheless writers who congratulate the nation on the building of new ships, look with indifference upon a constant and increasing drain of the precious metals, attended by a cessation of motion throughout the community that promises, in the end, to be as perfect as was that which existed in 1842.

We see, thus, that there is a constant tendency to decline in the value of gold as compared with labor and land in all those countries in which the supply of gold increases, and to a rise in that value in all those in which it diminishes, which latter is fully exhibited in several of the older Southern States. Why it declines in the former is that, from day to day, as manu-

* *M. Morsau de Jonnes.*

† *De Fontenay. Du Revenu Foncier.*

‡ *Ibid.*

factures and agriculture improve, there is found constantly increasing facility for obtaining further supplies, and the value of the old stock cannot exceed the *cost of reproduction*. For the same reason there is a decline in the value of old roads and old steam-engines. With each new one there is increased facility in obtaining newer and better ones, and the value of those existing can never exceed that of the labor and skill required for producing others of equal power. Precisely so is it with money. In the early periods of society, gold and silver were obtained from the poor soils of Europe, but now they are yielded by the rich ones of Asia, America, and Australia, and while the supply of the precious metals tends steadily to increase, and to raise prices, the steadily increasing power of association in all the manufacturing communities of the world causes so large an increase of the supply of manufactures and of food, that the tendency to rise in their price is counteracted, and prices fall instead of rising—and the only real advance is in labor and land. The harmony of interests between the miner and his customer is, therefore, complete, and all benefit by the increased supplies of the precious metals—of all others the most important instruments by which exchanges are effected.

Interest, however, tends to fall as money becomes more abundant, and here there might seem to be opposition of interests, but, as we have seen, the constantly increasing supply of the necessaries of life produces a decrease of prices, that compensates for the apparent loss to the man who has money to lend. So is it everywhere. As railroads and canals increase there is a constant diminution in the *proportion* of the goods carried on them that is absorbed by freight, and yet with every step in the progress of that diminution we see an increase of both ability and inclination to make new ones. So again with mills, furnaces, and steam-engines, all of which require for their services a constantly diminishing *proportion* of the commodities produced by them, with constant increase in the disposition and the ability required for the construction of new ones. Reverse the case, and diminish the supply of money, and all is reversed. The rate of interest rises and motion diminishes. The transporter must then increase his proportion of the goods he carries, and the miller must take larger toll on the grain he grinds, or the wool he converts into cloth, and with this increase of proportion there is a daily diminution in both ability and inclination to increase the quantity of machinery for making cloth or flour. The freights of ships and the profits of mills must rise in their proportion as the interest of money rises, or the owners of ships and mills will suffer, and if they do rise, they can do so only at the cost of the producer and the consumer.

They cannot, however, rise, for when the interest of money rises, it is always occasioned by a decline in production, and in the quantity of goods to be carried, as well as in the demand for cloth, axes, plows, and steam-engines—and it is upon the owners of permanent improvements of all kinds that the diminution in the supply of money falls with greatest severity. The man who buys and sells from hour to hour, finds a diminution of his business and his *profits*, but the owners of mills and mines, lands and ships, find a large diminution of their *capital*, and thus it is that so large a proportion of the most useful men in society are ruined in the financial crises that in every country follow the adoption of a system of trade that tends to diminish the supply of the precious metals.

Money is often spoken of as capital, and thus we are told that interest

is high because "capital is scarce," but there would be as much propriety in saying that freights are high because capital is scarce. Interest is high when *money* is scarce, and then freights and profits are always small in amount, even when large in proportion to the value of the goods carried or manufactured. Interest is paid for the use of *money alone*, and it moves in an opposite direction from profits and freights. Anything that causes diminution of production, as droughts, fires, or freshets, causes an advance in the price paid for the use of money, and a decline in that paid for the use of ships or mills; whereas anything that causes increase of production causes a decline in the price of money, and an advance in that of the machinery required for production and conversion, and to cause the creation of more ships and mills until the equilibrium is restored. We are often told that the high profits of this country are the cause of the high rate of interest that is paid, whereas it is the scarcity of money that causes interest to be high, and enables those who have it to obtain large profits by standing between the producer, who has to obtain advances, and the consumer who desires to obtain cloth and iron, to be paid for when his crop is harvested. Interest is always high in the countries from which money flows, and it is always low in those to which it goes, and therefore it is that the producer and consumer of the former are taxed so heavily by high charges for the use of the machinery of exchange, while so lightly taxed in the latter.

This mistake of confounding money with capital appears in a recent work by one of the leading economists of France, who regards it as an error but too common to say that "money is plenty, or money is scarce, to indicate that state of things which exists when the artisan seeking for capital obtains it with facility, or finds it difficult to be obtained."

He is of opinion that the English expression "money market" should be changed to "capital market," and that when the former complains that "money is scarce, he is the dupe of a metaphor, in virtue of which, in ordinary speech, capital is termed money, because money is the measure of capital."

The error here is, as I conceive, on the side of the economist, and not on that of the farmer, whose daily experience teaches him that when money, the machine by help of which exchanges are made from hand to hand, circulates freely, he becomes more prosperous from day to day; whereas, when it is scarce, and circulates slowly, he becomes daily less prosperous. It is *not* capital that is needed, but money, the machine by help of which the products of labor and capital are kept in motion, and without which they cannot move except in the fashion of primitive times, when skins were traded for knives and cloth. The actual capital of this country in houses, lands, factories, furnaces, mines, ships, roads, canals, and other similar property, has, in the last three years, been increased by the application of labor to the extent of at least a thousand millions of dollars, and yet we see in all directions roads half finished and unlikely soon to be finished although laborers are seeking employment—mills likely to be stopped for want of demand for their products—laborers unable to sell their labor—and men of business everywhere compelled to curtail their operations, because of the difficulty experienced in collecting their debts. Why is this so? Why should gloom and almost despair have everywhere taken possession of men who but two years since deemed themselves so highly prosperous? Not, certainly, because of any diminution of *capital*,

for that is greater than it has ever been. Look where we may we see new houses, roads, and farms, and almost States, created since the date of the last census, and in the last two years alone, the addition to the population cannot have been much less than two millions. Capital and labor, the things to be moved, have increased, but with that increase there has been a steady export of the machinery by which they were to be moved, and the results we now observe are precisely those which might have been expected from such a course of operation. The export of some thirty or forty millions of dollars in gold has produced this state of things, and to produce an almost entire stoppage of motion it is needed only that the export from the Atlantic States should, in the next twelve months, exceed by ten, fifteen, or twenty millions the import from California. The little capital required for making a railroad adds many millions to the value of the land through which it runs, because it produces rapid circulation of their products. The very little required for building furnaces and mills gives great value to land and labor, because it produces motion among the labor and its products that seek to be exchanged—but the very minute quantity employed in maintaining the machinery of exchange from hand to hand, produces results fifty-fold greater in proportion to its amount. The wealth of the country in 1845 was but little greater than it had been in 1842, yet prosperity reigned everywhere in the former year, because money was flowing in and motion was being produced, whereas in the latter it was flowing out, and motion was being suspended and the power of association was being destroyed. Were it possible this day to announce that by reason of any change of policy the export of gold would be stopped, and that the quantity in the country would steadily be increased by retaining the imports from California, money would almost at once again become abundant, motion would recommence, and prosperity would reign throughout the land—and yet the difference in the next year would not amount to *one-quarter of one per cent of the value of the land and labor of the country*. Capital would be increased by a portion so minute as scarcely to be discernable, and yet *the money value*—the value at which it would be exchanged—would be augmented by many hundreds of millions. At present all is stagnant, and there is little force. Then, all would be life and motion, and the force exerted would be great.

France exhibits the effect of the want of money in the low rate of average wages, due, as *Mons. de Jonnes** informs us, to the frequent and prolonged suspensions of labor, (*chomages*), and to the competition of laborers, both of them consequences of want of the necessary machinery of circulation. In that country there are few local institutions to furnish any substitute for metallic money, and what there is of the latter in circulation is, to a great extent, absorbed by demands for the payment of taxes, and has first to be collected in the Departments, then transmitted to Paris, whence it finds its way slowly back to the place from whence it came, the consequence of which is, that money is scarce, combination of action exists in a very small degree, and but little motion is produced. The manner in which such suspensions of activity as those described by *Mons. de Jonnes*, would be terminated by a small amount of money, is well exhibited by another distinguished French economist in the following passage :—

* *Annuaire de l'Economie Politique.*

"On one side we see a mechanic, a blacksmith, and a wheelwright, whose shops are closed, not perhaps because of any want of raw materials, but because of absence of demand for their products. Elsewhere are manufacturers in want of machinery, and farmers in need of agricultural implements. Why, now is it that these latter do not give to the former the orders for want of which they continue idle? Because they must be paid in money, and that money they cannot at the moment pay, and yet they have in their shops, or their barns, abundance of commodities that they desire to sell, and by the possession of which many of the neighboring people would be greatly served. Why do they not exchange? Because direct exchange is impossible, and they must commence by selling, and as they in their turn must demand money, they cannot find purchasers. Here we have a suspension of labor on both sides, and it is in such cases as this that production is languid and society vegetates, although surrounded by all possible elements of activity and prosperity.

"Means might, however, be found for removing this difficulty. If the mechanic, the blacksmith, and wheelwright refuse to deliver their products except for ready money, it is not because of any doubt on their part of the future solvency of the farmer or the manufacturer, but because it is not convenient to them to make sales on credit that would diminish their active capital, and perhaps prevent them from continuing their business. Let each one, then, in delivering his articles, as he has confidence in the future ability of those who now require them, require only, in place of money, a note that he can use in his turn with those who furnish him. On this consideration, circulation will be re-established, and labor will be resumed. True, but we must first be sure that these notes when accepted will again be received by others, or otherwise it becomes at once a simple sale on credit. This certainty, however, cannot be obtained, and therefore they refuse the notes, not because of any suspicion of their ultimate value, but because of doubts of the possibility of parting with them. At this moment a bank intervenes, and says:—'You mechanic deliver your machinery; you blacksmith your instruments; you plowman your raw materials; you manufacturer your manufactures; accept with confidence notes payable at a future time, provided you have confidence in the goodness of those who will thus become your debtors. I will take charge of all those notes and hold them until they shall become due, giving you in exchange other notes issued by me, that you will be certain to find universally acceptable.' Forthwith all difficulty is at an end, sales are made, goods circulate, and production becomes animated. There are no longer raw materials, instruments, nor products of any description that remain even for a moment unemployed."—*Coquelin*.

We have here no change whatever in the quantity of capital owned by the community, and yet its members are seen passing from a state of apathy and unproductiveness to one of activity and productiveness, enabling every man to part with his labor, and to receive in exchange the commodities required for the consumption of wives and families, who before were like to suffer for want of the common necessities of life. What, however, is it that gives value to these bank notes, and why is it that they circulate so freely while those of the blacksmith and the farmer would remain so stationary? Because there existed in the community a confidence that *behind them stood a pile of money sufficient to redeem each and every one of them, whenever and however presented*. Without such confidence they could not have circulated, and that they could not would soon be seen if, because of the adoption of any particular course of policy, there were established a drain of gold, producing a steady diminution of the quantity in the possession of the bank, until at length even a single note failed to be paid on presentation. From that moment their circulation would be stopped; and the suspension of movement would again take place, and the blacksmith, the mechanic, and the wheelwright, would again mourn

over the machines they could not convert into food and cloth, while the farmer and the manufacturer would suffer from the difficulty of obtaining machinery for the better production of food and clothing. Money is to society what fuel is to the locomotive and food to the man—the cause of motion, whence results power. Withdraw the fuel, and the elements of which water is composed cease to move, and the machine becomes stationary. Withdrawal of the food from man is followed by paralysis and death, and such is precisely the effect of failure of the necessary supply of money, the producer of motion among the elements of which society is composed.

When, therefore, the farmer complains that money is scarce, and the laborer, mechanic, and manufacturer, repeat the complaint, they are right. It is money that is needed, and their common sense does not in any manner deceive them. In every country of the world, and in every part of such countries, pleasant feelings are excited by hearing of the incoming of gold and silver, because with its coming are associated ideas of activity and energy—while the contrary ones are excited by the outgoing of those metals, because with that are associated ideas of dullness, inactivity, suffering, and death. To this it is due that in almost every nation of Europe we see laws to have been enacted having for their object the prohibition of the export of the coin of the realm. The end sought to be accomplished was a right one, and the law makers failed only in discerning the proper mode of seeking its accomplishment. They required to attract money by giving to their subjects the peace and security, and the exemption from taxation, that would have enabled them to appropriate more of their labor to the accumulation of the machinery required for the cheap production of the commodities with which it was to be purchased. Money is capital, but capital is not necessarily money. When a man negotiates a loan, he obtains money for which he pays interest; he borrows the use of a house, for which he pays rent—or that of a ship, for which he pays freight; and there would be no more propriety in calling the “money market” a “capital market” than in calling a history of France an encyclopedia.

The motion described by *M. Coquelin* in the passage above quoted, proceeded, as the reader has seen, from the substitution of bank notes for those of individuals, but the use of such notes, we are informed, tends to the expulsion of the precious metals. How far this is really the case may be judged from the fact that in no country of Europe has the use of such notes been so universal as in Great Britain, and yet it is to that country that the precious metals of the world have heretofore tended, and the reason why such has been the case has been that those metals have there been rendered more useful by the help of the note. A hundred thousand pounds is by the use of such notes made to perform the work that without them would have required half a million, and the effect has been to lower the rate of interest for the use of money, to the great advantage of those who required to borrow it, while increasing the production and diminishing the cost of the commodities required to be used by the owner of the gold, to the great advantage of both. Such, too, are the effects observed in France and Germany. In the former bank notes have only recently come into use, but the import of gold increases with the extension of credit and the decline in the rate of interest. Such, likewise, is the case in Germany, in which the habit of association and the extension of credit are now so rapidly growing by help of the *Zoll-verein*, established with a view to bring together the producer of food and wool and the consumers of food, cloth,

and iron. It is through this *increase in the utility* of the metals that there has been a *decline in their labor value*, because of the increased facility of purchasing them with the cheaply produced food and manufactures, giving increased power to apply them to the various uses in the arts. So is it with all other commodities. As improved steam-engines enable us to obtain constantly increasing power from the same quantity of coal, the utility of coal increases, but its value declines because of the increased facility of obtaining more coal, and more iron for the construction of new engines. As the old road becomes more useful from the increased use that is made of it by a growing population, its value declines because of the growing facility of obtaining new and better roads. *Utility is the measure of the power of man over nature, while Value is the measure of the power of nature over man*—of the obstacles to be overcome before a commodity can be acquired—and this declines as the former grows. With every step in the increase of power to obtain food from the earth by reason of passing from the poorer to the better soils, man obtains a constantly increasing power to subjugate to the plow still richer soils, and the more rapid this increasing power the more rapid will be the growth of the value of labor and the decline in the *labor value* of the soils first cultivated. Such, precisely, is the case with the precious metals, whose value declines as their utility increases. The vast mass of gold and silver hoarded in France is useless to the community, and the fact that it is hoarded tends largely to increase the value of the precious metals in labor or its products. Were it all set free, money would become more abundant, and interest would tend to fall while labor and land would tend upward in price, because of the increased power of the community to apply the one to the improvement of the other. If we look around we shall see everywhere, that it is in those countries in which the precious metals render the smallest service to man, that they are the most valued, and that their value in labor and land declines as we pass towards that community in which they render the largest service—New England, and especially the two manufacturing States of Rhode Island and Massachusetts. Such being the case, we can readily see why it is that they tend everywhere *from* those countries in which interest is high and *to* those in which it is low. In the latter their value is steadily diminishing, and those who have labor of mind or body to sell experience a constant increase of power to apply them to the various purposes for which they are fitted—in gilding books and pictures, converting them into knives, forks, spoons, and into other forms calculated to serve the use or gratify the tastes of their owners. It is where and when interest tends downward that their use for all such purposes most rapidly extends, thus proving that with increased utility value diminishes; and where and when interest tends upward that their use most rapidly declines, furnishing further proof that utility and value are always in the inverse ratio of each other.

With the increase in the supply of money there is everywhere seen a steady increase in the tendency towards an equalization of the price paid by the poor and the rich for the services of this great instrument of association. A century since the price of the British three per cents was higher than it now is, and of course the rate of interest on such securities was lower, but the rate of interest paid by men of small means was higher. So in France, when the government could borrow at five per cent, the weekly charge in the retail operations of the markets of Paris, was two

sous per cent for a credit of sixty, or nearly 175 per cent. So is it every where even now among ourselves. The wealthy man can borrow at twelve or fifteen per cent, but the small trader can scarcely do so at any price, while the poor laborer is happy to obtain credit at the rate of 100 per cent. Whenever and wherever money is scarce and credit is consequently impaired, there is great inequality. So soon, however, as money becomes again abundant, the prices charged for its use are seen to tend gradually towards a level, and the small operator of good character for punctuality is seen to obtain loans at nearly, if not quite, as low a rate as his opulent neighbor. With the growth of wealth in whatsoever form there is a tendency towards equality, manifested by a constant increase in the *proportion* of the laborer or artisan, and corresponding diminution in that retained by the landowner or other capitalist, but in none of the operations of life is that tendency so frequently or so clearly manifested as in the transactions connected with the use of money, of all the machinery of exchange in use by man, the one that renders the largest amount of service, and at the smallest cost.

With every increase in the supply of money there is, too, a diminution of the burden imposed by pre-existing capital liable to be demanded in money. It is within the knowledge of every man who reads this paper, that mortgages become more and more oppressive with every diminution in the supply of money, and that as the supply increases, the weight of the mortgage, both as regards the payment of interest and the repayment of the capital, diminishes. In the former case, if the diminution be continued for a sufficient length of time, it generally results in the forced sale of the encumbered property, as was seen to so great an extent in this country in 1842. The rich are thus made richer, while the poor are ruined. Every step towards increase in the facility of obtaining money is therefore democratic in its character.

Again, with every increase in the supply of money, taxes become less oppressive to those who pay them, and less beneficial to those who receive them, except in so far as the increased production of the commodities required for their consumption makes amends for any decline in the value of the one in which their salaries are paid. The men of fixed incomes, whether soldiers, judges, generals, or sovereigns, lose now by the substitution of gold for the dearer—silver; but the farmer, the laborer, and the other tax payers of the country, gain; and here again we have evidence of the highly equalizing and democratic tendency of an increase in the power of man over those great deposits of the only commodities capable of being used with advantage in the transfer of property from hand to hand.

That such is the tendency of the recent greatly increased facilities for obtaining those metals which stand at the head of all others in their capacity for facilitating that combination of effort required for increasing the productive power of labor, is clearly seen by the men of Europe who derive their means of existence from the public treasury, or from money rents, or interest, as is shown by the ingenious efforts in France and Holland for excluding gold from circulation as money. The public debt of the latter is immense, and the men who look to the treasury for dividends being great in number and in power, they, of course, desired to be paid in silver as the metal of greatest value, while the tax payers preferred to pay gold as the one of least value. The former triumphed, and gold was

formally excluded from circulation as money. In France, as yet, the effort has failed of success. Taxes, rents, and interest are there enormous in amount, and the people who live out of them are very numerous and very powerful. The annual receipts and disbursements from the treasury are about 1,700 millions of francs, while mortgage debts require nearly half as much, and rents of houses and lands perhaps as much more; and thus we have an amount of more than \$600,000,000 to be collected in money, and then again divided among the most influential members of society, all of whom deem themselves likely to be largely benefited by limiting the circulation to the dearest of the precious metals, to the great injury of the tax payers and the payers of interest.

The abundance of gold is democratic and equalizing in its tendency, and therefore would they repudiate it; yet the injury would ultimately be severely felt by themselves. Such a measure could not fail largely to increase the tendency in that country towards the state of things so well described in the extract above given from *Mons. Coquelin's* excellent little book—that of constant suspension of labor, because of the difficulty of finding means of disposing of its products, everywhere a consequence of deficiency in the machinery of circulation from hand to hand. Elsewhere he reminds his readers of the French proverb, which says that “the difficulty is not to produce but to sell,” and without desiring to assert its absolute truth, he says that it is impossible to deny that it is true to a great extent. “If,” as he continues, “the difficulty of selling did not arrest production, the people of France would carry the amount of their production very far beyond its present limits.” Not one in ten of them, as he assures his readers, produces as much as he could; and yet, everywhere, “the great question is to find a market for those that are produced.” Hence it is that he finds himself compelled to describe the condition of the French workman as “comparatively wretched.” The difficulty, however, is not confined to them; the discomfort resulting from this state of things is universal, extending to all classes of society.*

The capital in labor and land exists, but it needs motion, and the only way to produce that is to have a sufficient supply of the machinery, by help of which exchanges are made from hand to hand. “What is really wanted by the French farmer,” says *M. Coquelin*, “is not capital, but the power to pay for what he needs. It is that capital that he requires, and wanting it he finds himself compelled to deny himself and his land the advantages that would result from the possession of cattle, seeds, and agricultural instruments that would enable him largely to increase his production.” Admitting, as he further says, that credit would give him power to pay, he would be seen giving his orders “to the wheelwright, the blacksmith, the cattle grower, the manufacturer of manures, all of whom would be set to work, and in a little time agricultural capital would abound throughout the country.” In order, however, that this credit may exist there must be a base upon which it can rest, and that base can be nothing else than money, for every man who accepts a note does so because he believes he can have money for it when he will, and the power to establish that base throughout France must increase with every step tending to diminish the weight of taxes and interest, as is the case with the one which substitutes gold for silver in the payments to receivers of dividends upon

* *Le Credit et les Banques*, p. 167.

State debts, bank stocks, and mortgages. Every increase in the facility of making these payments is, as has been said, democratic in its tendency, and therefore it is that the moneyed aristocracy of France has manifested so great an anxiety to confine the circulation exclusively to the dearer metal—silver. What is remarkable, however, is that among those who seem most to appreciate the “evils” that, as they say, must result from an increase of the supply and diminution of the value of money, and who manifest the greatest anxiety for the passage of laws restricting the people from determining whether they will or will not use gold in their various transactions, are the leading advocates of the system commonly known as free trade—and the leading opponents of all governmental interference with the operations of the individual members of society.*

That such should be the case is the consequence of a want of proper appreciation of the services performed by the precious metals—services greater by far than can be obtained from any other employment of a similar amount of capital. They constitute the indispensable machinery of motion from hand to hand, and the *power* to obtain them increases with every diminution of the *necessity* for their use—with constantly increasing value of labor and land. That power grows now in every country in which the plow, the loom, and the anvil are being brought into closer connection with each other, as in Germany, Belgium, and France, towards which now tends nearly all the produce of the mines of California and Australia, and in which the rate of interest tends steadily downwards, to the vast advantage of the laborer and land-owner. It declines in all countries in which the plow, the loom, and the anvil are being separated, as in India, Ireland, Turkey, and Jamaica, this country, and in Great Britain itself, since the adoption of a system that tends to render the British loom and anvil dependent on the distant plows of Germany and of Russia. It is a startling fact, says a London letter-writer of the day, that although the receipts of gold in the present year have amounted to \$105,000,000, the quantity in the bank is less now by \$15,000,000 than when the year commenced. It grew in this country in the period from 1830 to 1834, and all then was life and motion. It declined from 1835 to 1842, and the decline resulted in stagnation and commercial death. It grew again from 1842 to 1847, and it commenced to decline in 1848, so soon as the plow, loom, and anvil tended, under the tariff of 1846, to separate. For a brief period the decline was arrested by the discovery of California gold, but the effect of that discovery is now passing away, and the decline of power is now more rapid from day to day, with constant diminution in the motion of society, in the extent of exchanges from hand to hand, and in the power of production. Should that decline not be speedily arrested, it must end in paralysis similar to that witnessed in 1842. Of all the machinery in use among men, there is none whose yield is so great in proportion to its cost as that employed in effecting exchanges from hand to hand—none whose movements inward or outward are so strong an evidence of increase or decrease of the productive power of the community—none, therefore, whose movements afford the statesman so excellent a barometer by means of which to judge of the working of his measures—and yet is of all others the one whose movements are, by modern political economists generally, regarded as totally unworthy of consideration—

* See *Journal des Economists*. Article of *M. Molonari*, on the depreciation of gold.

while by many of them we are taught that the only effect of an increase in the supply of that commodity, the possession of which is so anxiously sought by all mankind, is that, instead of having the labor of counting out one, two, or three hundred pieces, we should be forced to count three, six, or nine hundred of them, and that, therefore, there is economy in being forced to perform the work of exchange with a small quantity of the machinery by whose aid alone it can be performed. All the teachings of modern economists on this subject are in direct opposition to those of the common sense of mankind; and as is usually the case, that to which all men are prompted by a sense of their own interests, is far more nearly right than that which is taught by philosophers who look inward to their own minds for the laws which govern man and matter—and refuse to study those laws as exhibited in the movements of the people by whom they are surrounded.

It is by means of association and combination of effort that man advances in civilization. Association brings into activity all the various powers, mental and physical, of the beings of which society is composed, and thus it is seen that individuality grows everywhere with the growth of the power of combination. Association enables the many who are poor and weak to triumph over the few that are rich and strong, and thus it is that we see man becoming more free with every advance in wealth and population. To enable man to associate, there is required an instrument by help of which the process of composition, decomposition, and recombination of the various forces may readily be effected, so that while *all* unite to produce the effect desired, *each* may have his share of the benefits thence resulting. That instrument was furnished in those metals which stand almost alone in the fact that, as Minerva sprang fully armed from the head of Jove, they, wherever found, come forth ready, requiring no elaboration, no alteration, to fit them for the great work for which they were intended, that of enabling men to combine their efforts for fitting themselves worthily to fill the post at the head of creation for which they were intended. Of all the instruments at the command of man there are none that tend in so large a degree to promote individuality on one hand and association on the other as do gold and silver, properly, therefore, denominated the precious metals.

Art. II.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES.**CHAPTER IV.****IMMIGRATION.**

REGULAR and accurate returns from the custom-house of the number of our foreign immigrants have given us more authentic information on this interesting branch of statistics than we ever before possessed. Their number within the last ten years has not only, as hitherto, been greater than in the preceding decennial term, but the ratio of increase has far exceeded that exhibited by the census of 1840. Between 1830 and 1840 the immigration was not estimated at half a million, and was 136 per cent more than that exhibited by the census of 1830, but between 1840 and 1850 it had reached to between three and four times that amount, as may be seen in the following table:—

		Immigrants.			Immigrants.
To June 1st, 1841.....		83,504	To June 1st, 1846		147,651
" 1842.....		101,107	" 1847		225,182
" 1843.....		75,159	To Sept. 1st, 1848 .		296,387
" 1844.....		74,607	" 1849		296,208
" 1845.....		102,415	To June 1st, 1850		223,984
Total.....					1,621,275

Taking the average of the immigrants for three years, they were distributed, according to sex and age, in centennial proportions, as follows:—

Males.....per cent	58	Number between 20 and 30....	37
Females	42	" " 30 and 40....	16
		" upwards of 40.....	10
	100	" Ages unknown.....	1.5
Number under 10 years of age .	15		100
" between 10 and 20 ...	20.5		

It further appears that although the number of female immigrants is less than that of the males, the proportion of the former within the productive ages, is 25 per cent of the whole number, which exceeds the proportion in the whole white population by 5 to 4. This fact, and the much smaller proportion under ten years of age, (less than one-half,) may compensate, or more than compensate, the supposed greater mortality of foreigners in the first years of their new residence.

For the first time the late census has enumerated the persons in the United States who were not natives. They amounted on the 1st of June, 1850, to 2,240,535, about one-ninth of the white population. Of these—

The natives of Ireland were.....	961,719
" England, Scotland, and Wales	379,093
" British America.....	147,711
" Germany, Prussia, Austria, and Switzerland	598,078
" France.....	54,069
" Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Russia.....	19,489
" Holland and Belgium	4,161
" Mexico.....	13,317
" Spain, Portugal, and Italy	8,032
" West Indies.....	5,772
" Other countries, including those whose places of birth were unknown	62,411
Total.....	2,240,535

From which it appears that of the foreigners in the United States more than two-thirds are natives of the British dominions, and that more than two-thirds of the remaining third, are Germans.

They are very unequally distributed among the States, the Southern and South-western States scarcely containing a fifteenth part, as may be seen by the following table:—

NUMBER OF ALIENS BY BIRTH IN THE DIFFERENT STATES AND TERRITORIES.

In New York	651,801	In California.....	22,358
Pennsylvania.....	294,871	Iowa.....	21,232
Ohio.....	218,512	Texas	16,774
Massachusetts	160,909	New Hampshire	13,571
Illinois.....	110,593	South Carolina.....	8,662
Wisconsin.....	106,695	Alabama.....	7,638
Missouri.....	72,474	Georgia.....	5,907
Louisiana	68,413	Tennessee.....	5,740
New Jersey.....	58,364	Delaware	1,211
Maryland	55,288	District of Columbia.....	4,967
Michigan.....	54,852	Mississippi	4,958
Indiana.....	54,425	Florida	2,757
Connecticut	37,473	North Carolina.....	2,524
Vermont.....	32,831	New Mexico.....	2,063
Maine.....	31,456	Minnesota.....	2,048
Kentucky.....	29,189	Utah.....	1,990
Rhode Island.....	23,111	Arkansas.....	1,628
Virginia	22,394	Oregon.....	1,159

But great as is the foreign immigration to the United States, yet with the roving and locomotive propensities of the American people, their emigration from their own respective States to other States is much greater. By the last census it is found that the number of immigrants who are natives of other States is more than four millions, and that, widely separated as are many of the States by distance, emigrants from each State contribute to the population of every other. Though every State has gained and lost inhabitants by this migratory habit, the oldest and first settled States have been the greatest losers, and the new States of course have proportionally gained, as may be seen by the following table:—

DISTRIBUTION OF THE NATIVE FREE POPULATION, WHITE AND COLORED.

States and Territories.	Residing in their native State.	Residing in other States.	Immigrants from other States.
Maine.....	517,117	67,193	34,012
New Hampshire.....	261,591	109,878	42,636
Vermont.....	232,086	145,655	48,880
Massachusetts.....	695,236	199,582	134,830
Rhode Island.....	102,641	43,300	21,658
Connecticut.....	292,653	154,891	39,872
New York.....	2,151,196	547,218	288,100
New Jersey.....	385,429	133,381	45,012
Pennsylvania.....	1,844,672	422,055	169,947
Delaware.....	72,351	31,965	11,617
Maryland.....	400,594	127,799	38,322
District of Columbia	24,967	7,269	17,989
Virginia.....	872,923	388,059	53,231
North Carolina	556,248	283,077	21,502
South Carolina.....	262,160	186,479	12,653
Georgia.....	402,666	122,954	115,413
Florida.....	20,563	4,734	24,757
Alabama.....	237,542	83,388	182,490

States and Territories.	Residing in their native State.	Residing in other States.	Immigrants from other States.
Mississippi.....	140,885	150,229
Louisiana.....	145,474	14,779	60,447
Texas.....	49,160	2,481	87,893
Arkansas.....	63,208	10,916	97,139
Tennessee.....	585,084	241,606	170,577
Kentucky.....	601,764	257,613	139,117
Missouri.....	277,604	87,824	243,222
Illinois.....	343,618	45,889	393,313
Indiana.....	541,079	92,038	390,313
Ohio.....	1,219,432	295,453	538,124
Michigan.....	140,618	12,409	200,943
Wisconsin.....	63,015	3,775	134,897
Iowa.....	50,380	6,358	120,240
California.....	6,602	96	63,008
Minnesota Territory.....	1,334	949	2,673
New Mexico Territory.....	58,421		840
Oregon Territory.....	3,175		8,817
Utah Territory.....	1,381		7,974
Total.. ..	13,624,897	4,112,681

In the preceding numbers there is some variance between the different publications made at the Census-Office. I have followed Mr. De Bow's Compendium as the safest guide.

The last column in the preceding table, which shows the number of free persons who have migrated from the respective States of their birth to other States, should be precisely equal in its total number to the preceding column, but there is a variance of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent by reason of errors which, in such a multiplicity of enumerations, it is almost impossible to avoid.

CHAPTER V.

THE PROBABILITIES OF LIFE.

In executing the act of Congress for taking the Seventh Census, it was intended to have direct evidence of the rate of annual mortality in the United States, as an enumeration was ordered of all persons who had died within the year preceding June, 1850; but that part of the census has been so imperfectly executed as to be valueless. So many deaths have been omitted by the carelessness of the census takers, or rather of their informers, as to show a degree of salubrity such as has never been reached in any country; nor is there that regularity in the errors which would enable us to estimate the comparative mortality of the States—some of the least healthy showing by the returns the smallest number of annual deaths.

The details of the census of 1850, compared with those of the census of 1840, fortunately afford us materials for making this interesting estimate with a near approximation to the truth, as we shall thus see.

It is clear that the difference between the whole population of 1840, and the part of the population of 1850 over ten years of age, would show the number of deaths in ten years, if the country had neither emigration

nor immigration. The emigration, however, is insignificant, and the number of immigrants with their increase, we have now the means of ascertaining. But as our numbers in 1850 were augmented by the accession of Texas, New Mexico, and California, as well as by immigration, the population thus acquired must also be deducted. Having found the mortality of the whole population of 1840, that of those who have since come into existence, and are of course under ten in 1850, will be the subject of separate estimate, for which the census also furnishes materials. Let us now see the result:—

Of the whole population of 1850.....	23,191,876
The number under ten is.....	6,730,044
The number over ten is.....	16,461,832

To ascertain the number of immigrants to be deducted from the 16,461,832, we must ascertain—1. The number of immigrants under ten on the 1st of June, 1850. 2. The number over ten who had died between their arrival and June, 1850. These numbers are exhibited in the following table:—*

	Whole No. of immigrants.	No. of children under ten when they arrived.	No. of years to June, 1850.	No. of chil- dren under ten to June 1, 1850.	No. of deaths to June 1, '50.	No. over ten to June 1, '50.
1840-1.....	83,504	12,825	9½	642	10,110	72,752
1841-2.....	101,107	15,166	8½	2,275	11,105	87,727
1842-3.....	75,159	11,274	7½	2,817	7,299	65,043
1843-4.....	74,607	11,190	6½	3,916	6,182	64,509
1844-5.....	102,415	15,362	5½	6,912	7,068	88,435
1845-6.....	147,051	22,057	4½	12,131	8,167	126,753
1846-7.....	220,882	33,027	3½	20,867	9,384	190,631
1847-8.....	296,387	44,450	2½	24,760	9,185	262,492
1848-9.....	296,938	44,540	1½	37,783	5,215	253,940
1849-50.....	223,984	33,597	½	22,270	2,357	199,357
	1,622,034	243,483	..	134,373	76,022	1,411,639

If, then, we deduct from the 16,461,832, the population of 1850 over ten years of age, the number of immigrants over that age equal to 1,411,639, and also the number over ten in the newly acquired territories of Texas, &c., which by computation is about 135,000, the difference will be 14,915,193, which is the number of the survivors of the population of June 1, 1840. As this population was 17,069,453, a deduction of the 14,915,193 survivors shows the number of deaths in ten years to have been 2,154,258, averaging 215,425.8 a year. As in computing the rate of mortality the deaths are compared with numbers beginning with 17,069,453, and gradually descending through the ten years to 14,915,193, we must take the medium between those numbers, which is 15,992,324. Now, if this number be divided by the annual deaths, 215,425.8, it will show the average annual mortality to be 1 in 74.2 in that part of the population which is over ten years of age.

To ascertain the mortality of those under ten, our data are somewhat

* In the computation of deaths contained in the above table, I have, with some hesitation, allowed a somewhat greater mortality than is warranted by the life tables of Carlile, Queelet, and others, since I have assumed one-tenth of the children of the immigrants to be under one year, which probably greatly overrates their number at an age when the rate of mortality is far greater than at any other age.

less precise. According the census of 1850, the number of white and free colored persons who died under one year of age was 43,055, which, it must be recollected, included the children of immigrants since 1840, with the increase of the population generally for the year 1850. Let us deduct 10 per cent for this portion; for though the children of immigrants appear not to have exceeded an eleventh or twelfth of that class, yet in consideration of the admitted greater mortality both of immigrants and their children, 10 per cent does not seem too much for their proportion of deaths. If to the number, thus reduced to 38,749, we add the number of slaves who die at that early age, 10,481, we shall have 49,230 deaths of children in the first year after their birth.

What is the number of deaths for the other nine years? It may be approximated in this way. The whole number of white persons from 5 to 10 years of age and from 10 to 15 is 5,106,257, one-tenth of which may be presumed to give the number whose age is about ten. If one-tenth of this tenth be deducted, the remainder, equal to 459,563, will exhibit the number of children ten years old in 1850 of the population of 1840, and 5,620 in the last, the mean equal to 27,425, gives us the average annual number of deaths of one-tenth of the children under ten, or 274,250 for the whole number. By adding this number to the deaths of persons over 10, we have 489,676 for the whole number of deaths in 10 years on the population of 1840, and their increase, excluding all accessions from foreign sources. The population of 1850, with the like exclusion, is as follows:—

Gross amount.....	23,191,876
From which deduct the number of immigrants, with their increase, at the rate of 3 per cent per annum.....	1,840,233
The accession from Texas, &c.....	200,000
	<hr/>
	2,040,233
	<hr/>
	21,151,643

Their annual number of deaths we will assume to be 1 in 120, which supposes a greater mortality than is estimated at this period of life by the most approved life tables of Europe. This would be 3,998.7 for the annual deaths of the whites of 10 years of age, and 853.2 for those of the colored race, in all 4,852. But as there were 49,230 deaths of both classes in the first year of the decade, and 4,852 in the last, the mean—27,041—gives us the average annual deaths of one-tenth of the children under 10, or 270,410 for the whole number. To this, if we add 215,425 for the deaths of persons over ten, we shall have 485,836 for the annual deaths of the population of 1840, and their increase, excluding all accessions from foreign sources.

The population of 1850 with that exclusion, is as follows:—

Gross amount.....	23,191,876
From which deduct the immigrants, with their increase, at the rate of 3 per cent per annum from the time of their arrival....	1,840,233
Accession from Texas, &c.....	200,000
	<hr/>
	2,040,233
	<hr/>
	21,151,643

The mean between this number and the 17,069,453, the population of 1840, is 19,110,548, which, divided by 485,836, the total number of an-

nual deaths, we have an average mortality in the year of 39.3 for the whole population, white and colored, bond and free.*

There are two facts by which the preceding estimate would be slightly affected, but which we have no means of ascertaining with precision. These are the immigrants who come into the country overland, and that portion of the colored population who emigrate to foreign countries. But as they tend to counteract each other, they probably little affect the result. A correct estimate of the probabilities of life in these States is of great importance in several of the practical concerns of life; but the knowledge is unattainable without a strict registry of deaths, or more precision and accuracy in this part of the census than has been hitherto exhibited.

By a similar process, the annual deaths of the slaves, together with the number who have been manumitted or have been fugitives abroad, is found to be nearly 7 in 33½ (33.48.) According to the returns of the census, the number of fugitives and manumitted slaves in the year preceding the census was about 3,000, which, if deducted, would not reduce the mortality of the slaves as low as one in 35. But this difference arises from the greater number of deaths in the children. Thus, the number who die in the first year after birth is 10,481, which is nearly one-fourth of the number of white and free colored; while the proportion between the gross amount of the free and the slaves is between a sixth and a seventh. Besides, the deaths of the slaves above 10 is very nearly 1 in 77, which is a less proportion than in the same description of whites, which would be farther reduced by a deduction of the manumitted and fugitives. The greater mortality in the children of slaves is probably not attributable to any difference of race, but solely to the difference between those who have, as most of the whites, and those who want, as must many of the slaves, good nursing and attendance at that tender age. A correspondent excess of deaths is likely to be everywhere found in the indigent classes, especially in the first year after birth.

We have no means of ascertaining the mortality of the free colored class under 10, their deaths in the publications from the census office being blended with those of the whites; but by reason of the number of this class who emigrate, the diminution of the portion over 10, between 1840 and 1850, was as great as 1 in 50.

In the cases of extreme longevity, we continue to perceive a great superiority in the colored classes over the whites, and in the free colored over the slaves, though in both cases less than was shown in the censuses of 1830 and 1840. We perceive, also, a similar advantage of females in advanced age, until it exceeds one hundred years, when the males preponderate.

* It may be objected to the above estimate, that it greatly underrates the number of deaths of children under 1 in following the returns of the census, as that class of deaths is not more than one half the proportion estimated by the life tables of Europe. The error of this part of the census, so grossly inconsistent with other parts, is readily admitted; but it is probably compensated by the rule here adopted (for want of materials for a better) of taking the mean between the deaths of those under 1 and those who are between 9 and 10, since the number who die under 10 is so disproportionately large as greatly to overrate the average annual deaths in the ten years. Notwithstanding the acknowledged error, the number of deaths in persons under ten exceeds those of the European tables of mortality. The result is, therefore, probably not far from the truth.

CHAPTER VI.

THE DEAF AND DUMB, THE BLIND, THE INSANE, AND THE IDIOTIC.

In all the preceding enumerations of those who were deprived of hearing, sight, or reason, the free colored part of the population was confounded with the slaves, and the insane with the idiotic, but in the seventh census they have been separated. The result may be seen in the following table:—

NUMBER OF THE DEAF AND DUMB, BLIND, INSANE, AND IDIOTIC PERSONS IN THE UNITED STATES, JUNE 1ST, 1850.

	Deaf and dumb.			Blind.			Insane.			Idiotic.			Aggregate.
	Whites.	col'd.	Sl.	Whites.	col'd.	Sl.	Whites.	col'd.	Sl.	Whites.	col'd.	Sl.	
Maine.....	255	1	..	108	556	5	..	575	2	..	1,602
N. Hamp'se	180	1	..	132	2	..	378	350	1	..	1,025
Vermont...	147	1	..	139	1	..	560	297	2	..	1,147
Massachus's	356	2	..	457	6	..	1,661	19	..	786	5	..	3,292
R. Island...	62	3	..	61	6	..	210	7	..	110	4	..	463
Connecticut	398	6	..	174	12	..	464	6	..	283	4	..	1,347
N. York...	1,256	7	..	1,137	44	..	2,487	34	..	1,644	21	..	6,680
N. Jersey ..	184	5	..	178	29	..	370	9	..	406	13	..	1,194
Pennsylv'a.	1,130	15	..	941	28	..	1,865	49	..	1,432	35	..	5,495
Delaware...	48	1	2	25	14	..	48	20	..	74	14	4	253
Maryland ..	197	28	25	215	63	45	477	44	25	275	48	68	1,521
D. of Col...	17	2	..	15	8	1	13	9	1	10	3	..	79
Virginia...	540	13	89	497	85	299	864	47	59	890	90	201	3,675
N. Carolina.	389	7	75	379	27	155	467	10	33	615	28	151	2,336
S. Carolina.	134	2	22	150	14	134	224	4	21	249	5	94	1,060
Georgia...	208	1	57	224	4	129	294	2	28	515	1	148	1,611
Florida ...	13	..	11	15	1	14	9	..	2	28	..	8	101
Alabama...	151	1	58	156	2	138	201	2	30	343	..	133	1,215
Mississippi.	79	1	27	112	..	93	105	..	24	136	2	84	663
Louisiana ..	82	3	32	72	2	122	144	11	45	106	6	62	705
Texas	49	..	10	61	1	11	37	93	..	11	273
Arkansas...	80	..	4	78	1	13	60	..	3	103	2	10	354
Tennessee.	334	2	43	383	9	82	380	5	22	756	5	85	2,104
Kentucky ..	507	5	51	419	29	113	502	2	23	796	20	91	2,549
Missouri...	263	..	19	191	3	38	249	2	11	325	..	32	1,133
Illinois....	354	2	..	259	5	..	236	2	..	361	2	..	1,221
Indiana....	533	4	..	341	12	..	556	7	..	225	13	..	2,391
Ohio.....	905	10	..	630	12	..	1,303	14	..	1,344	17	..	4,235
Michigan...	124	1	..	125	132	1	..	186	3	..	572
Wisconsin ..	69	63	54	92	2	..	280
Iowa	59	50	44	94	245
California ..	7	1	2	7	17
Minnesota..	1	2
N. Mexico...	34	98	44	187
Oregon.....	2	5	4	11
Utah	5	1	6

Total ... 9,136 136 531 7,978 429 1,387 14,972 311 327 14,257 348 1,182 50,994

For the sake of better comparing this part of the census with the correspondent parts of the census of 1840, we shall again unite the free colored with the slaves, and the idiotic with the insane. By this comparison it appears that—

OF THE DEAF AND DUMB.

In the white population the proportion in 1840 was as 1 in.....	2,123
" " " " " 1850 " 1 in.....	2,140
In the colored population the proportion in 1840 was as 1 in.....	2,933
" " " " " 1850 " 1 in.....	5,455

OF THE BLIND.

In the white population the proportion in 1840 was as 1 in..	2,821
" " " " 1850 " 1 in..	2,450
In the colored population the proportion in 1840 was as 1 in..	1,509
" " " " 1850 " 1 in..	1,929

OF THE INSANE AND IDIOTIC.

In the white population the proportion in 1840 was as 1 in..	977
" " " " 1850 " 1 in..	668
In the colored population the proportion in 1840 was as 1 in..	978
" " " " 1850 " 1 in..	1,929

We here perceive great discrepancies between the last census and that of 1840. In the white population while the number of deaf and dumb is nearly the same, the proportion of the blind has increased about 13 per cent, and that of the insane and idiotic more than 30 per cent. But in the colored race, in all three of the privations, the proportionate number is greatly diminished. In the class of the blind the proportion is reduced more than one-fourth; in the class of the deaf and dumb it is reduced nearly one-half, and in that of the insane and idiotic the reduction is more than one-half.

The suspicions entertained against the accuracy of that part of the census of 1840 which respected the insane of the colored population, have been justified by subsequent investigations, but on the other hand, in correcting the error, the correspondent part of the seventh census seems hardly entitled to our entire confidence. We know that much sensibility was excited by the greater frequency of insanity among the colored race which resulted from that census, and it is possible that the interest thus felt may, in more ways than one, have biased the judgment of the census takers in placing individuals under this class. Though the census of 1840 unquestionably overrated the number of the colored insane in the Northern States, yet when we saw the proportion gradually increase as we proceeded on the Atlantic coast from Georgia to Maine, and in the West from Louisiana to Michigan, it was not to be believed that the diversity was produced by a correspondent variety and gradation of errors; and reasoning on probabilities, we were compelled to admit that there was some solid foundation for the difference exhibited, though it might be greatly exaggerated. We may add that there is intrinsic evidence in favor of the census of 1840 on this point, which that of 1850 does not possess. Nor is this all. That census itself affords grounds for questioning its accuracy. It shows that while in the white population the proportion of the insane and idiotic is as much as 1 in 668, in the colored population it is only 1 in 1,929; and though we cannot admit that in New England, where the colored population shows a small increase, the number of insane and idiotic has fallen from 383 to 45, as the census shows; neither can we readily believe that, contrary to all previous enumerations, the proportion of the white race thus afflicted is three times as great as that of the colored. We must, then, look to future enumerations to decide whether the liability of the last-mentioned race to these mental maladies, which the census of 1840 has confessedly exaggerated in some States, has not been generally underrated by the census of 1850, and whether truth does not occupy a middle point between them.

CHAPTER VII.

ON THE FUTURE INCREASE OF POPULATION.

If we deduct from the population of 1850 the numbers gained by immigration, and by the acquisition of Texas, New Mexico, and California, with their increase to June 1st, 1850, we shall ascertain the present increase by natural multiplication. Thus:—

The whole population was	23,191,876
Deduct the number of immigrants and their increase between 1840 and 1850.....	1,840,227
Gain from Texas and their increase.....	200,000
	<hr/>
	2,040,227
Population exclusive of immigrants.....	<hr/>
	21,151,649

The difference between this number and 17,069,453, the population of 1840, showing an increase of 23.9 per cent in ten years, or 2.16 per cent a year. This is far below the ordinary estimates. but it cannot be materially increased without a great reduction in the computed number of immigrants; and if we merely take their number as returned from the custom-house, and allow nothing for their increase, supposing it not more than sufficient to compensate their mortality, then the increase in ten years would be raised only to 25.58 per cent, or 2.32 per cent in one year.

This implies a great diminution in the rate of natural increase, but the census exhibits abundant evidence of the same fact, in accordance with the census of 1840. Thus the number of children under ten of the white population—5,600,586—bears to the white females—9,523,511—the proportion of 58.81 per cent, whereas in 1840 it was 64.63 per cent. If we deduct the immigrants, who, from the greater proportion of adults, tend to lessen the proportion of children, we shall find the same evidence of decrease. Thus by deducting 750,000* for the immigrant females, on the 1st of June, 1850, computed from the custom-house returns and the probable mortality, and 350,000* for the immigrant children, the proportion of the residues of children to females, would be less than 60 per cent—(59.93.)

On examining the rate of increase of the children in the several states, in the last ten years, we do not find the same uniformity of result as was exhibited during forty years, (see *ante*, page 104;) but if some of the States exhibit an increase in the proportion of children, a large majority—20 States out of 29—show a diminution, as may be seen in the following tables.

In six of the States, given below—Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland, the proportion of children has increased in the last ten years. What has made these States exceptions to the general rule, either in increasing the proportion of their children or in lessening that of their females, is not obvious; but the united increase of the whole five States is but 1.3 per cent.

* These numbers, being deduced from data that are partly conjectural, have no claim to accuracy, but no presumable amount of error can materially affect the result.

TABLE SHOWING THE PROPORTION BETWEEN THE WHITE CHILDREN UNDER TEN YEARS OF AGE, AND THE WHITE FEMALES IN TWENTY STATES, IN THE YEARS 1800, 1840, AND 1850.

	1800.		1840.		1850.		Proportion per cent.		
	Females.	Children.	Females.	Children.	Females.	Children.	1800.	'40.	'50.
Maine.....	74,069	54,869	247,449	148,846	285,063	163,465	74.0	60.1	57.3
N. Hampshire	91,740	60,465	143,932	70,387	161,496	73,393	65.9	48.5	45.4
Vermont.....	74,580	57,692	144,840	80,111	153,744	82,808	77.3	55.3	53.7
Massachusetts	211,299	124,566	368,351	173,057	501,357	240,835	58.9	46.9	48.0
Rhode Island..	33,579	19,466	54,225	25,384	73,535	36,071	57.9	46.8	49.1
Connecticut ..	123,528	73,682	153,556	71,783	183,215	85,422	59.6	46.7	46.6
New York ...	258,587	195,840	1,171,533	681,091	1,503,836	844,761	75.7	58.1	56.2
New Jersey....	95,600	67,402	174,533	103,302	232,057	138,500	70.5	59.1	59.7
Pennsylvania .	284,627	270,283	831,345	524,189	1,115,426	712,673	71.2	63.0	63.8
Delaware	24,819	15,878	29,302	17,406	35,423	22,135	63.9	59.4	62.4
Maryland	105,676	69,648	159,400	93,072	206,756	120,962	65.9	58.4	61.4
Virginia	252,151	179,761	369,745	240,343	443,500	290,010	71.3	65.0	56.5
North Carolina	166,116	122,191	244,833	162,282	280,003	188,708	73.5	66.2	65.5
South Carolina	95,339	72,075	128,588	86,566	136,816	88,538	75.6	67.3	64.8
Georgia.....	48,298	38,248	197,161	150,317	255,329	187,602	81.1	76.2	73.4
Mississippi	2,262	1,962	81,818	65,269	139,431	104,688	86.7	79.7	75.1
Tennessee....	41,529	37,677	315,193	234,700	374,601	268,317	84.6	74.4	71.6
Kentucky	83,915	72,234	250,684	204,978	360,609	259,451	83.9	71.9	70.4
Ohio	20,595	18,276	726,762	509,088	950,993	650,416	88.7	73.3	68.4
Indiana.....	2,003	1,645	325,925	248,127	470,976	333,699	82.1	76.1	76.1

If we extend the comparison to all the other States whose population was known in 1840, we shall find in the greater number a correspondent diminution of their natural increase in the last ten years, as may be seen in the following table:—

	1840.		1850.		Proportion per cent.	
	Females.	Children.	Females.	Children.	1840.	1850.
Florida	11,487	8,404	21,498	73.2	77.0
Alabama.....	158,463	125,547	207,031	16,556	78.9	73.1
Louisiana.....	68,716	48,684	114,248	151,346	70.9	67.6
Arkansas.....	34,363	28,899	76,315	77,268	83.9	80.9
Mississippi.....	118,572	118,572	279,017	260,797	78.8	75.5
Illinois.....	217,019	165,329	400,490	209,898	76.2	74.3
Michigan.....	98,165	69,036	186,606	299,896	70.5	69.2
Wisconsin.....	11,992	8,690	140,405	129,890	72.5	73.8
Iowa.....	18,668	14,562	90,984	71,297	77.5	75.3

The steady diminution in the rate of natural increase thus exhibited by the whole United States, and by most of the individual States, for fifty years, as well as by those States that have afforded the means of making the comparison for a shorter period, shows that the laws of population, as laid down by Malthus, must be considerably modified. It proves incontrovertibly that while in every country the means of attainable subsistence is a necessary element in the increase of its numbers, it is not an all-sufficient cause of such increase, nor so powerful a cause as Malthus seems to suppose; since we find the rate of increase declining in a country and at a period when subsistence is as easily obtained as it ever was, and where the labor of a month—and often that of a fortnight—would be sufficient to procure as much wholesome and palatable food as the laborer consumed in the year. It is clear, then, that moral causes—probably by producing a slight retardation of marriage—constitute the operative check in the United States, and that the extraordinary facility of subsistence which exists here, seems to exert no influence on that check.

It follows from the preceding views that the period of duplication, in our progressive increase, must be steadily increasing, unless the deficiency

should be compensated, as it hitherto has been, and sometimes more than compensated, by immigration.

The population of the United States consists principally of two races—the white and the African, and partly of a mixture of the two—the mulatto, which is first specially noticed in the seventh census. Though the natural increase of the colored race, or at least of the servile portion, is greater than that of the whites, yet, by the aid derived from immigration, the white population is always gaining on the colored, so that the proportion, which in 1790 was as 4.19 white to one colored, was, in 1850, 5.37 to one; and the proportion of whites to slaves had increased in the same period from 4.5 to 7.2 to 1.

The opinions which were hazarded in the first part of this work, (page 116,) of the period when slavery would probably terminate of itself in the United States, must now be qualified by important changes in the condition of the United States since 1840. The termination of slavery was, in those speculations, made to depend on the density of population, which again depended on the extent of territory. Since that time the United States have acquired about 800,000 square miles of almost vacant territory, 237,000 of which, being added to the slaveholding States by the annexation of Texas, is one of the contingencies which would tend to prolong the continuance of slavery. With this qualification as to time, the views presented by the author in 1843 remain unchanged, as he has met with neither fact nor argument to affect their soundness.

What may be the increase of the mixed race of mulattoes cannot yet be known, as they have been now enumerated for the first time. Their whole number, in 1850, was 405,754, of whom 159,095 were free, and 246,656 were slaves. There is thus about one mulatto to every eight of the colored population, about one out of twelve of the slaves, and more than one out of two of the free colored. Some physiologists are disposed to regard mulattoes as hybrids, and as exhibiting in their greater shortness of life, the degeneracy of that class; but a comparative table of the blacks and mulattoes in two States—Connecticut and Louisiana, and two cities—New York and New Orleans, disproves this hypothesis.

There is within the limits of the United States a third race—the Indians, who are not considered to be a part of the population. They have no share in the government, and contribute nothing, either by personal service or tax, to its support. They are not amenable to the laws except for crimes, and have no relation to the government, except as grantors of the lands they occupy, and as pensioners, in consequence of those grants. The number in this anomalous condition is estimated at something more than 400,000, a part of whom occupy the territory set apart for them, and seem to be advancing in civilization; but the greater portion continue in their aboriginal habits and pursuits, and though considered to be within the jurisdiction of the States or Territories, are admitted to have the sole property in the soil of their ungranted territory. With regard to the ultimate destiny of this race, those who are advancing in civilization may retain their independence and be finally incorporated with the States of the Union, while those who are still in their savage state may be encouraged by the success of the former to follow their example, or gradually dwindling in number as their lands diminish, the remnant may become paupers and pensioners of the government; or lastly the whole of those who survive their exterminating wars and their free use of ardent spirits, may become gradually amalgamated with the other two races.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE GROWTH OF THE ATLANTIC AND WESTERN STATES—THE SLAVEHOLDING AND NON-SLAVEHOLDING STATES COMPARED.

By the last census it was found that the Western States continued to gain on the Atlantic States, and the States prohibiting slavery or those which permit it, though in a diminished ratio from that which was anticipated in 1840, as may be seen in the following tables of their respective populations, representatives in Congress, and presidential electors, in 1850. As we now have more accurate estimates of the extent of the States and Territories than was before published, and have acquired a large accession of territory since 1840, the areas, as corrected, are here given:—

ATLANTIC STATES.

I. Non-slaveholding States.	Area in sq. miles.	Population.	Representatives.	Electors.
1. Maine.....	31,755	583,169	6	8
2. New Hampshire.....	9,280	317,976	3	5
3. Vermont.....	10,212	314,120	3	5
4. Massachusetts.....	7,800	994,514	11	13
5. Rhode Island.....	1,306	147,545	2	4
6. Connecticut.....	4,674	370,792	4	6
7. New York.....	47,000	3,097,394	33	35
8. New Jersey.....	8,320	489,555	5	7
9. Pennsylvania.....	46,000	2,311,786	21	23
Total.....	160,747	8,626,851	88	106
II. Slaveholding States.	Area in sq. miles.	Population.	Representatives.	Electors.
1. Delaware.....	2,120	91,532	1	3
2. Maryland.....	11,124	583,034	6	8
3. Virginia.....	61,352	1,421,661	13	15
4. North Carolina.....	50,704	869,039	8	10
5. South Carolina.....	29,385	668,507	6	8
6. Georgia.....	58,000	906,185	8	10
7. Florida.....	59,268	87,445	1	3
District of Columbia.....	60	51,687	.	.
Total.....	272,013	4,679,090	43	57

WESTERN STATES.

I. Non-slaveholding States.	Area in sq. miles.	Population.	Representatives.	Electors.
10. Ohio.....	39,964	1,930,329	21	23
11. Indiana.....	33,800	988,416	11	13
12. Illinois.....	55,405	851,479	9	11
13. Michigan.....	56,243	397,654	4	6
14. Wisconsin.....	53,024	305,391	3	5
15. Iowa.....	50,914	192,214	2	4
16. California.....	155,980	92,597	2	4
Territories*.....	1,472,661	92,298	.	.
Total.....	1,417,991	4,900,369	52	66

* The areas of these Territories are thus given in De Bow's Compendium, on whose authority the areas of the States are also given:—

Indian Territory.....	71,127	Oregon.....	135,630
Kansas.....	114,798	Utah.....	269,170
Minnesota.....	166,625	Washington.....	123,022
Nebraska.....	335,882	Total.....	1,472,661
New Mexico.....	207,007		

Progress of Population in the United States.

II. Slaveholding States.	Area in sq. miles.	Population.	Representatives.	Electors.
8. Louisiana	41,255	517,762	4	6
9. Texas	237,504	212,592	2	4
10. Alabama	50,722	771,623	7	9
11. Mississippi	47,156	606,526	5	7
12. Arkansas	52,198	209,897	2	4
13. Tennessee	45,600	1,002,717	10	12
14. Kentucky	37,680	982,405	10	12
15. Missouri	67,380	682,044	7	9
Total.....	599,445	4,985,566	47	63

INCREASE OF POPULATION OF THE PRECEDING DIVISIONS OF STATES IN 30 YEARS.

	1830.	1840.	1850.	Decennial increase.		
				1830.	1840.	1850.
Atlantic States	9,188,133	10,686,381	13,305,941	23.8	16.3	24.5
Western States	3,692,569	6,376,972	9,885,935	63.7	73.6	54.5
Non-slaveholding States....	7,012,300	9,728,922	13,527,220	35.8	38.7	36.2
Slaveholding States.....	5,848,303	7,334,431	9,664,656	29.9	25.4	31.8

If the same rate of increase should continue with the Atlantic and the Western States respectively, when will the latter attain the preponderance to which they are ultimately destined by reason of their far greater extent of territory? Their respective numbers, which had been in 1840 in the ratio of 60 per cent for the Atlantic States and 40 per cent for the Western States, had changed, according to the census of 1850, to 57.4 per cent for the Atlantic States and 42.6 per cent for the Western; thus showing that as they approached at the rate of only 5.2 per cent in 10 years, it would require three more decennial terms, or be 1880, before the Western States would have a preponderance, which would then be less than 1 per cent.

By this time the progress of railroads, canals, and manufactures, may have so increased their commercial intercourse as to overcome the influence of local jealousy and narrow local interests. Experience may teach the mass of both divisions, that on all great national questions—such, for example, as the policy of supporting a respectable navy—their interests are identical. It must, however, be recollected that the increasing immigration, both foreign and domestic, to the new States and Territories in the West, may accelerate the progress of the Western States beyond the rate here supposed; and that, on the other hand, the States on the Pacific, now reckoned in the Western division, may form a class by themselves, and be neutrals between the other two divisions, or, perchance, incline to throw their weight into the scale of the Atlantic States, under the influence of their commercial connections.

In the other twofold division of the States, growing out of the institution of slavery, it happens that the division which already has the preponderance of numbers, also increases the fastest. What effect this growing ascendancy may have on the agitating and perplexing topic of slavery, cannot now be foreseen. It may infuse a new heat and bitterness in the strife that has been thus engendered; or it may produce more moderation when the disparity is more seen and felt by both parties than at present; or, lastly, in the alternate ebbs and flows which the tides of popular feeling are ever undergoing, the subject that now fills the land with discord, and threatens it with consequences as serious as lasting, may come to be regarded as of no higher concern to the General Government or the American people, than the extent of parental or marital authority in a State, or its penal code, on all of which both man's moral sympathy and his religious creed may be brought to bear as directly as on domestic slavery.

CHAPTER IX.

RELIGION—JUVENILE AND POPULAR INSTRUCTION.

In consequence of the entire freedom of religion in the United States, their different sects are more diversified in tenets and character, and are less unequal in numbers than in any other country. The principal denominations, with the number of churches and value of the property belonging to each, may be seen in the following table:—

Denominations.	No. of churches.	Value of property.	Denominations.	No. of churches.	Value of property.
1. Methodist.....	13,280	\$14,822,870	12. Free.....	386	\$263,305
2. Baptist.....	9,375	11,020,855	13. German Reform.	338	975,080
2. Presbyterian....	4,824	14,453,789	14. Dutch Reformed.	330	4,096,880
4. Congregational..	1,706	7,970,195	15. Moravian.....	328	417,667
5. Episcopal.....	1,450	11,375,310	16. Unitarian.....	242	3,173,822
6. Roman Catholic..	1,221	9,250,758	17. Menonites.....	113	93,345
7. Lutheran.....	1,217	2,884,286	18. Tunkers.....	51	37,625
8. Christians.....	863	847,036	19. Jews.....	30	330,600
9. Friends.....	726	1,713,767	20. Swedenborgian..	16	108,600
10. Union.....	608	644,715	Minor sects.....	418	985,180
11. Universalist....	529	1,752,316			
Total.....				38,061	\$87,328,861

The sects whose churches throughout the Union exceed 1,000, have the following local distribution:—

	Methodist.	Baptist.	Presby- terian.	Congre- gational.	Episco- pal.	R. Cath- olic.	Lutheran.	Other sects.	Total.
Maine.....	199	326	7	180	9	12	...	212	945
N. Hampshire.	103	193	13	176	11	2	...	128	626
Vermont.....	146	102	11	175	26	2	...	137	599
Massachusetts.	262	236	15	448	54	41	1	428	1,475
Rhode Island..	23	106	..	21	26	7	...	45	228
Connecticut...	185	114	17	252	104	13	44	14
New York....	1,231	781	671	215	279	175	81	700	4,134
New Jersey ..	312	108	149	8	52	22	7	155	813
Pennsylvania..	889	220	775	..	138	139	493	807	3,566
Delaware.....	106	12	26	..	21	3	...	12	180
Maryland.....	479	45	56	..	133	65	40	91	909
Dist. of Colum.	16	6	6	..	6	6	2	4	46
Virginia.....	1,025	649	240	..	173	17	50	229	2,383
North Carolina.	784	615	151	..	50	4	49	142	1,795
South Carolina.	484	413	135	1	72	14	41	22	1,182
Georgia.....	795	879	97	1	20	8	8	54	1,862
Florida.....	87	56	16	..	10	5	...	3	177
Alabama.....	587	579	162	..	17	5	1	32	1,373
Mississippi....	451	385	143	..	13	9	...	27	1,016
Louisiana.....	125	77	18	..	14	55	...	17	306
Texas.....	176	82	45	..	8	13	...	51	341
Arkansas.....	168	114	52	..	2	7	...	19	362
Tennessee.....	861	646	363	..	17	3	12	112	2,014
Kentucky.....	530	803	224	..	19	48	5	216	1,845
Missouri.....	250	300	125	..	11	65	21	8	880
Ohio.....	1,529	551	663	100	70	130	260	633	3,936
Indiana.....	778	428	282	2	24	63	63	392	2,032
Illinois... ..	405	282	206	46	27	59	42	156	1,223
Michigan.....	119	66	72	29	25	44	12	32	399
Wisconsin.....	110	49	40	37	19	64	20	24	365
Iowa.....	71	20	38	14	5	18	4	23	193
California....	5	1	3	..	1	18	...	10	28
Territories....	2	1	2	1	..	79	94
Total....	13,280	9,375	4,824	1,706	1,459	1,221	1,217	4,979	38,061

It would seem, from the preceding tables, that there is, on an average,

a church, or place of worship, for every 610 of the gross population—adults and children; that the average property of each is about \$2,300, though some are ten times as rich as others; and that the churches of the Methodists and Baptists united outnumber all the other sects.

These places of worship are distributed in every part of the Union very nearly in proportion to population, showing that the American people, in whose spontaneous action these accommodations for public worship originated and are maintained, exhibit a remarkable uniformity in the spirit of devotion, however great may be the diversity in their manifestations of it, by particular tenets and modes of worship, as may be seen in the following:—

TABLE OF THE NUMBER OF CHURCHES IN EACH OF THE GREAT DIVISIONS OF THE STATES, AND OF THE QUOTAS OF POPULATION ASSIGNABLE TO EACH.

Local divisions.	No. of churches.	Population.	No. of persons to each.
New England States.....	4,607	2,628,116	594
Middle States.....	10,648	6,624,928	660
Southern States.....	7,399	3,952,538	530
South-western States....	5,065	3,321,117	620
North-western States.....	10,853	6,379,923	590

The inequality, small as it is, is increased by the fact that in the Southern States, where the churches are relatively the most numerous, they are probably below the average in the number they can accommodate, and that in the Middle States, where the churches are proportionally the fewest, they are above the average in magnitude.

Of the three classes of PUBLIC SCHOOLS enumerated by the census of 1850, there is no material difference in the number of *Colleges* from the census of 1840, but there is, in the former, a much larger proportion of inferior schools. The proportion of illiterate, however, is about double that in 1840.

This seeming retrograde course, of which instances are so rare in the United States, and which is not in accordance with the great increase of primary schools, may probably be in part attributed to the recent large additions to the number of immigrants—the States which received the greatest number showing also the greatest increase of illiterates—and a part may, perhaps, be ascribed to a smaller number of omissions in this class, now that the census takers are required to return each individual separately.

States.	Universities and colleges.	Students.	Endowment.	Academies.	Scholars.	Endowment.
Maine.....	2	282	\$14,000	131	6,648	\$51,187
New Hampshire.....	1	273	11,000	107	5,321	43,202
Vermont.....	5	464	21,558	118	6,864	48,935
Massachusetts.....	6	1,043	107,901	381	12,774	310,177
Rhode Island.....	1	150	3,500	46	1,691	32,748
Connecticut.....	4	738	53,620	202	6,966	145,967
New England States.....	19	2,950	\$211,589	985	40,284	\$632,216
New York.....	14	2,673	148,258	853	49,262	810,332
New Jersey.....	4	470	79,700	219	9,569	226,388
Pennsylvania.....	21	3,286	282,205	524	23,751	467,843
Delaware.....	2	144	17,200	65	2,011	47,832
Maryland.....	11	992	101,714	225	10,677	\$42,229
District of Columbia.....	2	218	24,000	47	2,333	\$84,040
Middle States.....	54	7,783	\$653,077	1,952	97,603	\$1,878,664

States.	Universities and colleges.	Stu- dents.	Endowment.	Academies.	Scholars.	Endow- ment.
Virginia.....	12	1,535	159,790	303	8,982	234,372
North Carolina.....	5	513	40,700	272	7,822	187,648
South Carolina.....	8	720	104,790	202	7,467	205,489
Georgia.....	13	1,535	105,480	219	9,059	108,983
Florida.....	34	1,251	12,089
Southern States....	38	4,303	\$410,710	1,030	34,531	\$748,581
Alabama.....	5	567	41,255	106	8,290	164,165
Mississippi.....	11	862	42,400	171	6,628	73,717
Louisiana.....	5	469	76,250	143	5,828	193,077
Texas.....	2	165	1,000	97	3,389	39,384
Arkansas.....	3	150	3,100	90	2,407	27,937
Tennessee.....	17	1,605	63,507	260	9,517	156,842
South-western States.....	43	3,817	\$227,512	867	35,559	\$655,122
Missouri.....	9	1,809	79,528	204	8,829	143,171
Kentucky.....	15	1,873	131,461	330	12,712	252,617
Ohio.....	26	3,621	125,792	206	15,052	149,352
Indiana.....	11	1,069	43,350	131	6,185	63,520
Illinois.....	6	442	13,300	81	4,179	40,488
Michigan.....	3	308	14,000	37	1,616	24,974
Wisconsin.....	2	75	4,300	58	2,723	18,796
Iowa.....	2	100	2,000	31	1,051	7,980
California.....	6	170	14,270
Territories.....	1	44	894	23,078
North-western States.....	75	8,497	\$413,731	1,128	53,421	\$247,246
Total.....	234	27,159	\$1,916,698	6,032	261,362	\$4,653,842

States.	Primary schools.	Scholars.	Endowment.	Illiter- ates.
Maine.....	1,042	102,815	\$315,436	6,282
New Hampshire.....	2,381	75,642	166,944	3,009
Vermont.....	2,731	93,457	176,111	6,240
Massachusetts.....	3,679	176,475	1,006,795	28,345
Rhode Island.....	416	23,130	100,481	3,607
Connecticut.....	1,656	71,269	231,226	5,306
New England States.....	11,905	542,788	\$1,996,993	52,780
New York.....	11,580	675,221	1,472,057	98,722
New Jersey.....	1,479	78,205	216,992	18,665
Pennsylvania.....	9,061	413,706	1,414,530	76,272
Delaware.....	194	8,970	43,861	10,181
Maryland.....	907	33,254	229,848	41,877
District of Columbia.....	22	2,169	14,232	4,671
Middle States.....	23,243	1,211,525	\$3,391,520	250,388
Virginia.....	2,937	67,438	314,025	88,520
North Carolina.....	2,657	104,095	158,564	80,423
South Carolina.....	724	17,838	200,600	16,504
Georgia.....	1,251	32,705	182,231	41,667
Florida.....	69	1,878	22,386	4,129
Southern States.....	7,638	223,954	\$877,806	231,343

States.	Primary schools.	Scholars.	Endowment.	Illiter- ates.
Alabama	1,152	28,380	315,002	33,992
Mississippi	782	18,746	254,159	13,528
Louisiana	664	25,046	349,679	24,610
Texas	349	7,946	44,088	10,583
Arkansas	353	8,493	43,763	16,935
Tennessee	2,667	103,651	195,443	78,619
South-western States	5,677	192,262	\$1,202,134	118,261
Missouri	2,234	71,429	160,770	36,768
Kentucky	2,667	103,651	211,852	69,706
Ohio	11,661	484,153	743,074	66,020
Indiana	4,822	161,500	314,467	72,710
Illinois	4,054	425,790	349,350	41,283
Michigan	2,714	110,455	169,806	8,281
Wisconsin	1,423	58,817	113,133	6,453
Iowa	742	29,616	51,492	8,153
California	2	49	3,600	5,235
Territories	16	80	15,509	25,994
North-western States	30,335	1,445,540	\$2,131,053	370,603
Total	80,991	3,354,173	\$9,591,530	1,053,420

The scholars of the three classes are in the following centesimal proportions, by which it appears that the second class and the elementary gained to a small extent, while the college class remained as it was:—

College students8
Academical	7.2
Elementary	92
Total	100

But the great source of popular instruction in these States is the periodical press, which has an extent and dispersion known in no other country. Its productions may be classed under the *single sheets* published as newspapers daily, or once, twice, or thrice a week, and *pamphlets* published monthly, semi-monthly, or quarterly. They are thus distributed among the States:—

States.	NEWSPAPERS.			PAMPHLETS.		
	Daily.	Twice or thrice a week.	Weekly.	Monthly.	Quar- terly.	Aggre- gate.
Maine	4	5	39	1	...	49
New Hampshire	35	3	...	38
Vermont	2	1	30	2	...	34
Massachusetts	22	15	125	32	7	209
Rhode Island	5	2	12	19
Connecticut	7	4	30	1	2	46
New York	51	21	308	45	3	428
New Jersey	6	..	43	2	...	51
Pennsylvania	24	3	261	19	2	310
Delaware	3	7	10
Maryland	6	4	54	4	...	68
District of Columbia	5	5	8	18
Virginia	15	12	55	4	...	87
North Carolina	5	40	6	...	51
South Carolina	7	5	27	5	...	46

States	NEWSPAPERS.			PAMPHLETS.		
	Daily.	Twice or thrice a week.	Weekly.	Monthly.	Quar- terly.	Aggre- gate.
Georgia.....	5	3	37	8	...	51
Florida.....	..	1	9	1	49	10
Alabama.....	6	5	48	..	38	60
Mississippi.....	..	4	46	1	35	50
Louisiana.....	11	6	37	..	209	55
Texas.....	..	5	29	..	19	51
Arkansas.....	9	..	46	9
Tennessee.....	8	2	36	4	428	50
Missouri.....	5	4	45	7	51	62
Kentucky.....	9	7	38	8	310	62
Ohio.....	26	10	201	27	119	107
Indiana.....	9	2	95	1	68	107
Illinois.....	8	4	84	3	118	261
Michigan.....	3	2	47	6	87	58
Wisconsin.....	6	4	35	1	51	46
Iowa.....	..	2	25	2	46	20
California.....	4	..	3	..	51	7
Total.....	254	146	1,902	195	19	2,526

These various periodicals have been arranged under the four heads of political, literary, religious, and scientific:—

States.	Political.	Literary.	Religious.	Scientific.	Aggregate.	States.	Political.	Literary.	Religious.	Scientific.	Aggregate.
Maine.....	29	15	4	1	49	Alabama..	43	12	3	1	60
N. Hampsh..	22	10	5	1	38	Mississippi..	40	10	50
Vermont...	27	5	35	Louisiana...	34	19	1	1	55
Massachus..	82	89	24	14	209	Texas.....	14	18	2	..	34
R. Island ..	12	7	19	Arkansas ..	6	8	9
Connecticut.	8	12	4	1	46	Tennessee..	36	7	7	..	50
New York..	263	116	37	12	428	Missouri....	42	17	2	..	61
New Jersey.	44	7	51	Kentucky..	42	14	5	1	63
Pennsylvan.	198	83	28	1	310	Ohio.....	192	43	21	5	261
Delaware...	8	2	10	Indiana....	84	21	2	..	107
Maryland...	39	21	6	2	68	Illinois....	73	23	8	3	107
D. of Colum.	15	3	9	..	18	Michigan ..	39	14	3	2	58
Virginia...	62	15	6	1	87	Wisconsin..	42	3	..	1	46
N. Carolina.	85	10	5	..	51	Iowa.....	25	3	1	..	29
S. Carolina.	24	13	3	2	46	California..	..	7	7
Georgia.....	20	24	3	4	51	Territories.	1	3	4
Florida.....	7	..	2	..	10						
Total.....							1,907	651	191	53	2,526

The public libraries of the United States seem to be sufficiently numerous, considering how dispersed is the greater part of the population—there being about 1 for each 1,500 of the population. But there is no instance yet of those large and complete libraries which we see in most European countries. No library here has yet reached 100,000 volumes, and but two or three have attained half that number.

These libraries may be arranged under the three heads of *Public Libraries*, provided by the government or by joint-stock companies, *College and Theological Libraries*—and libraries of Sunday and other schools. These, with the number of volumes in each, are thus distributed among the States:—

States.	College and theo- logical li- braries.	Volumes.	Public libraries.	Volumes.	School libraries.	Volumes.	Aggre- gate of libraries.	Volumes.
Maine	17	40,317	77	51,489	142	29,211	236	121,969
N. Hamp . .	9	22,425	47	42,017	73	21,317	129	85,759
Vermont . .	12	23,860	30	21,061	54	19,720	95	64,641
Massachus.	60	156,157	177	257,737	1,225	270,120	1,462	684,015
R. Island . .	8	32,756	25	42,007	62	27,579	96	104,342
Connectic't	11	83,225	42	38,609	111	42,084	164	165,318
N. York . . .	31	141,577	43	197,229	10,939	1,422,023	11,013	1,760,820
N. Jersey . .	6	24,338	77	43,993	43	12,744	128	80,885
Pennsylva.	47	104,411	90	184,686	256	75,192	393	363,409
Delaware . .	1	5,000	4	10,250	12	2,700	17	17,950
Maryland . .	15	34,642	17	54,750	92	34,650	124	125,042
D. of Col'a .	2	32,500	7	66,100	9	98,600
Virginia . .	16	51,386	16	32,595	17	4,681	54	88,462
N. Carolina	14	25,240	4	2,500	20	3,852	38	29,592
S. Carolina	7	80,964	16	17,758	3	2,750	26	107,472
Georgia . . .	9	21,500	3	6,500	26	3,788	38	31,788
Florida	1	1,000	6	1,660	7	2,660
Alabama . .	5	7,500	4	3,848	47	9,275	56	26,623
Mississippi	4	10,093	4	7,264	107	4,380	117	21,737
Louisiana . .	2	5,000	5	9,800	2	12,000	19	26,809
Texas	1	100	3	2,100	8	2,180	12	4,230
Arkansas	1	250	.	170	3	420
Tennessee . .	5	9,925	9	5,373	23	7,598	34	22,896
Missouri . . .	4	20,300	13	23,105	70	31,650	97	75,056
Kentucky . .	15	34,425	47	49,424	29	4,617	80	79,466
Ohio	26	59,525	65	65,703	261	63,575	352	186,826
Indiana . . .	5	9,100	33	35,982	88	13,065	151	68,403
Illinois . . .	4	7,800	13	23,105	115	18,704	152	62,486
Michigan . .	3	7,900	280	65,116	18	34,927	417	107,943
Wisconsin . .	2	1,800	9	12,046	30	7,180	72	21,029
Iowa	4	2,650	4	3,140	32	5,799
Total	343	1,484,641	1,217	1,446,015	14,055	2,189,725	15,615	4,636,411

Art. III.—A STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE STATE OF ILLINOIS.

NUMBER II.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

THE soil of the State of Illinois is essentially fertile, and her agricultural resources almost boundless. When her entire surface is reduced into judicious cultivation, she will make a larger return, acre for acre, than probably any similar extent of territory on the continent. We have seen that her surface is divided into two principal parts—the prairies and the alluvions of the river bottoms. And what are these prairies but alluvial deposits, varying in fertility as the waters which once covered them have left greater or smaller quantities of vegetable decomposition at one point or another?

It is unnecessary for our present purposes to enter into an examination of the theories of the formation of the prairies and alluvions, to prove that they do or do not arise from the same causes—it is enough for our present purposes to know that the constituents or properties of both are the same, or very nearly so. That the prairies were originally covered with

water, is perfectly evident; and a depth of water over them was attained, remarks Mr. Schoolcraft, "adequate to the deposition of those successive strata of small pebblestones, sand, clay, fine, rich loams, and carbonaceous molds, of which they are composed." Mr. S. continues:—

"On the breaking away of the obstruction which kept the waters upon the prairies, the waters would recede gradually into those channels in which it is now drained off, sinking lower and lower as the force of the current carried before it new portions of the yielding rock. The margins of these drains would remain covered with water until a comparatively recent period, and acquire further deposits of alluvial matter. These new deposits would be highly favorable to the after-growth of forest trees; while the intermediate table lands, being first exposed to the sun, would soon be covered with a luxuriant growth of grasses and various herbage, that would attract from adjoining regions the innumerable herds of large graminivorous animals which formerly inhabited the country. The effect of these immense herds of animals feeding upon the nascent plains would be to trample down vegetation and prevent the growth of large forest trees—a result that may be supposed to have been still further promoted by their annual exposure to fire. This hypothesis derives additional weight from an attentive consideration of the mineral character of alluvial deposits forming the surface of prairies, in which we often observe fine, hard and compacted layers of earth, similar to those which are found at the bottom of mill ponds where the water has been long stagnant," &c.

Who can estimate, then, the agricultural wealth of a region with so fine a climate, so well watered, and whose whole surface is mold, or an admixture of the *debris* of rocks, clay, sand or gravel, with animal and vegetable remains?

The State contains 35,459,260 acres; of which 12,037,412 are included in farms, but only 5,039,545 acres are improved; yet Illinois is the tenth State in the Union in this respect. The States having a larger quantity of improved land are—

	Acres of improved land.		Acres of improved land.
New York	12,408,968	Tennessee.....	5,175,178
Pennsylvania.....	8,628,619	Kentucky.....	11,368,270
Virginia.....	10,360,135	Ohio.....	9,851,493
North Carolina.....	5,453,977	Indiana.....	5,046,543
Georgia.....	6,378,479		

Of these 12,037,412 acres of land included in farms, 879,049 acres of improved land and 1,487,182 acres of unimproved land lie in the counties bordering on the Mississippi; 183,815 acres of improved land and 287,657 acres of unimproved land in the Rock River counties; 942,656 acres of improved and 1,027,509 acres of unimproved in the Illinois River counties; 317,166 acres of improved and 338,086 acres of unimproved lie in the Sangamon River counties; 288,005 acres of improved and 332,345 acres of unimproved land lie in the Fox River counties; 255,223 acres of improved and 468,526 acres of unimproved in the Kaskaskia River counties; 64,019 acres of improved and 171,707 acres of unimproved land lie in the Ohio River counties; 178,149 acres of improved and 317,773 acres of unimproved land lie in the Wabash River counties; and in the Little Wabash River counties and in the Kankakee, there are 142,335 acres of improved land and 240,952 acres of unimproved land—that is to say, 3,298,012 acres of this improved land is genuine alluvion, or very nearly so, and 1,741,533 may be regarded as prairie of all descriptions, wet, dry, flat, and rolling.

TABLE SHOWING AMOUNT OF IMPROVED AND UNIMPROVED LAND OF THE COUNTIES ON THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS:—

MISSISSIPPI RIVER COUNTIES.			SANGAMON RIVER COUNTIES.		
	Acres of improved land.	Acres of unimproved land.		Acres of improved land.	Acres of unimproved land.
Joe Daviess.....	60,311	137,839	Menard.....	55,785	55,704
Carroll.....	32,776	54,780	Sangamon.....	176,895	146,377
Whiteside.....	35,992	55,184	Chrislair.....	27,654	48,412
Rock Island.....	24,803	47,512	Macon.....	33,330	69,901
Mercer.....	34,927	47,434	Piatt.....	23,502	22,892
Henderson.....	35,796	48,879			
Hancock.....	80,163	93,769	Total.....	317,166	838,086
Adams.....	147,273	168,872			
Pike.....	87,957	105,438	FOX RIVER COUNTIES.		
Calhoun.....	7,295	29,076	McHenry.....	125,010	159,204
Jersey.....	56,491	66,858	Kane.....	83,938	102,256
Madison.....	93,251	165,067	Kendall.....	79,257	70,885
St. Clair.....	133,101	161,061			
Monroe.....	39,637	74,186	Total.....	288,005	332,345
Randolph.....	50,655	103,246			
Jackson.....	22,778	40,657	KASKASKIA RIVER COUNTIES.		
Union.....	30,448	65,515	Washington.....	47,557	68,276
Alexander.....	5,333	16,882	Clinton.....	40,410	66,532
Total.....	879,049	1,487,182	Fayette.....	33,258	100,529
			Shelby.....	51,454	109,520
ROCK RIVER COUNTIES.			Coles.....	77,544	123,669
Winnabago.....	67,929	94,325			
Ogle.....	77,208	146,848	Total.....	255,223	468,526
Lee.....	38,678	46,484			
Total.....	183,815	237,657	OHIO RIVER COUNTIES.		
ILLINOIS RIVER COUNTIES.			Polaski.....	7,332	22,809
Green.....	87,257	113,574	Mason.....	10,571	31,691
Scott.....	48,216	54,216	Pope.....	15,629	36,898
Morgan.....	142,272	97,662	Hardin.....	10,531	34,283
Cass.....	54,578	46,732	Gallatin.....	19,956	52,626
Brown.....	34,846	73,458			
Schuyler.....	37,776	60,313	Total.....	64,019	171,707
Fulton.....	124,817	148,203			
Mason.....	46,222	42,201	WABASH COUNTIES.		
Tazewell.....	72,882	92,077	White.....	48,548	88,996
Woodford.....	36,651	57,842	Wabash.....	24,569	39,648
Peoria.....	83,718	100,790	Lawrence.....	34,684	56,968
Marshall.....	36,301	58,192	Crawford.....	34,697	65,041
Putnam.....	28,105	27,965	Clark.....	35,899	67,129
Lasalle.....	93,093	118,546			
Grundy.....	15,916	35,738	Total.....	178,149	317,773
Total.....	942,656	1,027,509			
KANKAKEE.			LITTLE WABASH.		
Iroquois and Kan-			Edwards.....	20,216	37,212
kakee.....	30,118	36,812	Coles.....	77,544	123,669
			Effingham.....	14,457	43,254
			Total.....	112,217	204,140

About six-sevenths, or 30,451,715 acres of land in the State are out of cultivation, and 23,421,848 are "wild" lands, not included in farms.

The number of farms in 1850 was 76,208, making an average of 66 acres of cultivated land in each farm. Their cash value was \$96,133,290, and the cash value of farming implements and machinery was \$6,405,561. If the whole State was reduced to cultivation under the present imperfect

system, the cash value of farms would be a little short of \$673,000,000, and the value of farming implements and machinery would be \$44,808,927. It is fair to presume, however, that these figures will be greatly increased when the entire State is actually under cultivation. The bringing together of so large a population, their separation into different pursuits, the improved means of cultivation, and the increased demand for the products of the soil, will place the price of land, the value of agricultural implements, &c., and the productive wealth of the State, far beyond the results of our calculations upon the actual figures of 1850; so that \$673,000,000 can be regarded only as a distant approximation towards the value of the real estate in Illinois when her population shall be, instead of 851,470, between 5,950,000 and 6,000,000, or seven times the present value of the real estate, is but the merest approximation to what it will be when the present population is sevenfold greater.

These calculations do not pretend to verge towards even speculative accuracy. No account has been taken of the land occupied by roads, streets, parks, rivers, lakes, creeks, &c., or by churches, cemeteries, public edifices, &c.; nor of the extraordinary increase that occurs in short periods in prosperous cities and towns—such an increase as occurred, for instance, in the city of Chicago from 1839 to 1853. In 1839, property in Chicago valued at \$1,829,420, was valued in 1853 at \$22,929,637, an aggregate increase of nearly 1,400 per cent.

It is a matter of regret that fuller and more accurate information cannot be obtained as to the geological formation and character of the State. At present there is no source from whence it may be derived. We will proceed, then, to examine rapidly, with the imperfect information at our command, the natural resources of the State, and will commence with her mineral wealth.

Marble, lime, and sandstone are found, one or the other in every county; secondary limestone forms the basis of the rocks in the whole northern portion of the State. At Athens, in Dupage county, fine quarries of milk-white limestone, closely resembling marble, and capable of a high polish, have been found, and from which many of the most beautiful edifices in Chicago have been constructed within the last two years. This stone will ultimately constitute the chief material, where it can be procured with tolerable convenience, for all of our fine public and private edifices, particularly in our cities, and will render them remarkable for the permanence, elegance, and beauty of their structures. Near the city of Chicago a singular stone has been discovered of a dark-grey color, a species of marble, with a granulated fracture, from which there is a constant exudation of bituminous matter, which does not, however, injure its value for architectural purposes. The Second Presbyterian Church on Wabash Avenue, in Chicago, is built of it; and is greatly admired for its antique and venerable appearance.

If lime should ever become an important element in our husbandry or valuable for export, vast quantities may be procured in a large proportion of the counties. Recently, kilns have been built, and large supplies have been furnished Chicago from the west bank of the Des Plaines. Sandstone suitable for building purposes exists in large quantities in the southern counties. When excavated and exposed to the air, it hardens, and is preferred to the limestone for many building purposes.

There are quarries of fine marble in Randolph, quartz crystals in Gal-

latin and the adjacent counties, and plaster of Paris (gypsum) in St. Clair. But generally much more importance is attached to metallic minerals than to any others; and in this department, though Illinois has no mines of gold or silver, she possesses others of far greater value. There are two hilly regions in the State—one in the northwestern portion of the State, east of Galena; the other in southern Illinois, in the counties of Union, Johnson, Pope, Hardin, Gallatin, and Williamson, which seems to be an extension of the hilly region embraced upon and between the Cumberland and Tennessee rivers. These two regions constitute the metallic mineral regions *par excellence*.

In Hardin county lead mines have been worked for some years, but not so profitably as in other sections of the State, owing to the great hardness of the ore, which is due to the presence of silver and zinc. Lead is encountered in vast quantities in the northwestern part of the State. From the year 1822, when the mines were first worked scientifically, to 1835, the yield had been 70,420,357 pounds. As much as 13,000,000 pounds had been smelted in a single year. In 1854, 3,145,613 lbs. were received from the Galena region in the city of Chicago. Much of this ore yields 75 per cent of the metal.

Iron is one of the greatest productions of the State, and its value cannot be over-estimated. It enters, Colton well says, "into every man's wants and into his constant use, and no man can do without it in a variety of forms. It constitutes the most prominent necessity of war, of peace, of agriculture, of manufactures, of Commerce, and, it may be said, of every pursuit of life. It enters even into the finest embellishments of the arts. Time, that most momentous of all movements, carrying with it the destinies of all nations, cannot be accurately measured in its progress without it."

In 1850 the capital invested in the manufacture of pig-iron was \$65,000, and 5,500 tons of the ore were consumed. In the manufacture of cast-iron \$260,400 were invested, and 4,818 tons of pig-iron and 50 tons of old metal were consumed. The total capital invested in the manufacture of iron was \$325,400; the value of raw material, coal, &c., consumed was \$187,830; the annual cost of labor, \$153,264; and the value of the products, \$511,385.

In the northern counties, particularly at the mouth of Plumb Creek and some smaller streams, large quantities of copper have been discovered. Small quantities have also been found in the southwestern counties, in the bluffs of the Mississippi, and on the Big Muddy River.

Zinc has been found in considerable quantities in several localities; and small quantities of silver in the county of St. Clair.

Fluate of lime has been discovered near Shawneetown, and buhr-stone near the junction of the rivers Mississippi and Illinois.

There are a number of salt springs in southern Illinois. The Ohio saline near Shawneetown was once extensively worked. A bushel of salt was obtained from between 250 and 300 gallons of the brine. The springs have been neglected in latter years; but we are not advised as to the facts which caused their general abandonment, except that we know it was from no failure in the water or its properties. Twenty years ago, the Ohio saline produced 200,000 bushels of salt, the minimum price of which as established by law was \$1 25 per bushel. Probably the sale of the springs by the State, the repeal of the *tariff* of minimum price, and the

active competition from the salt works of the State of Ohio and the Great Kanawha salines in Virginia, have prevented these from assuming the attitude of importance which it was thought they would. On the western base of the highlands known as the Oshawaro Mountains, lying near the Little Wabash, and extending around the alluvions of Shawneetown, there are extensive saline deposits.

There are numerous mineral springs in the State, which are resorted to for their medicinal properties. The more noticeable of these are the springs between Ottawa and Peru and those in Jefferson county. Their principal ingredients are sulphur, iron, and sulphate of magnesia. There are also fine chalybeate springs in Johnson county.

In combustible minerals the State is very rich. Anthracite coal is known to exist in one of the southern counties, and bituminous in vast quantities in every part of the State. Many of the coal mines along the Illinois River have been worked for the past few years, and some for a much longer time. At Sheffield, in Bureau, large quantities are mined, and it is said to be of an excellent quality. Since 1850 this interest has been greatly developed. Several companies have been formed, and are supplying the St. Louis market from St. Clair county. One or two other companies with a heavy capital, and employing large numbers of hands, are mining coal extensively on the Saline River, in Gallatin county, for the New Orleans market and to supply steamers on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. This stratum of coal is said to be from five to eight feet in thickness, and it extends from the low grounds on the Wabash River across to the Mississippi, and indefinitely northward. It is supposed to be a part of the same stratum that *crops out* on the Illinois River, and in the neighborhood of Danville, in Vermillion county, on the Chicago branch of the Illinois Central Railroad, and in some of the other interior counties.

Though this interest has not assumed any great magnitude and importance, there are 1,055 colliers and miners in the State; it is destined to become one of the most fruitful sources of our wealth. In the year 1853, 33,046 tons, or 72,705,000 lbs. of coal were received from the States of Pennsylvania and Ohio by the Lake, at the port of Chicago, and 2,077 tons, or 4,569,956 lbs. from the interior of the State by canal and railroads. The consumption of this article is, however, very small now compared with what it must become when the number of manufacturing establishments shall be multiplied, and when a State with so scanty and so unequally distributed a supply of timber shall be teeming with a dense population. The consumption in our houses, manufactories, smelting-rooms, and laboratories, and on our railroads and steamboats, will be enormous; and the attention of an enlightened public cannot be too soon turned towards its further development. The increasing necessity of the State, as well as the fluctuations in the price of coal and the uncertainties of our Eastern market, demand that it should be done without delay. Without this powerful agent, there is little prospect of a nation's rising to consequence in modern times; without it, she cannot rank among the powerful nations of the earth; she is almost at the mercy of her more fortunate neighbors. It has everywhere, when accessible, superseded wood and charcoal. It blazes upon the hearths of our smiths; drives the wheels of our manufactories; lights up our cities by night; and sends us forward on our journeys by land and sea. It fashions all the implements of peaceful industry; and forges all the thunderbolts of war.

In the vegetable kingdom, the productions of the State are rich and varied, and generally resembling those of States in similar latitudes. The following list comprehends the forest trees and undergrowth most usually seen:—

Cotton wood.	Black walnut.	Honey locust.
Sycamore.	Butter nut.	Swamp locust.
American elm.	Pecan nut.	Papaw.
Slippery elm.	Shag bark.	Hornbeam.
Red maple.	Pig nut.	Iron wood.
Sugar maple.	Chesnut.	Beech.
Black maple.	Black birch.	Coffee tree.
Soft maple.	Yellow birch.	White pine.
Striped maple.	White ash.	Cypress.
Black oak.	Blue ash.	Undergrowth sumac.
Swamp oak.	Bass-wood.	Dog wood.
White oak.	Hoop ash.	Spice bush.
Pin oak.	Sassafras.	London greenbrier.
Black sack.	Persimmon.	Red bud.
Overcup white oak.	Wild cherry.	Hazel, &c., &c.

The supply of timber in the State is limited, but it is thought that it would answer every purpose by economical use, if it were conveniently dispersed, for every part, but it is not, and the want of it has been a great annoyance and expense to the farmer. Wire for the purposes of fencing has been introduced with tolerable success, but farmers are generally having recourse to the Osage orange. This plant makes a thick, impenetrable, and beautiful hedge—hundreds of miles of it are now growing along our railroads and around the larger and better cultivated of our landed estates. In the northern portion of the State large supplies of plank for fencing, &c., are procured from Chicago. It is thought, since the conclusion of the reciprocity treaty with the Canadas, that lumber from the upper Canadian forest will be sold at Chicago much below the prices heretofore prevailing. There are many varieties of the grape indigenous to the soil, and the experiments in Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky, as well as some few in this State, show that the best varieties of the foreign grape may be domesticated. In 1850, 2,977 gallons of wine were manufactured.

We come now to consider the agricultural interest of the State, which is the basis of all others, and justly held in high esteem among us.

Corn (maize) and oats are the principal productions, the soil being particularly adapted to them. In 1830, the corn crop was 57,646,984 bushels, and the oat crop 10,087,241 bushels. The limits of this article will not admit of our entering into a view of the varied productions of the soil, with the adaptation of the State, or its different parts, to each. We must content ourselves with a simple statement of the amount of each leading article produced in a single year, with their value, from which a comprehensive idea will be formed of the agricultural resources and productive wealth of the State.*

* In 1840, there was raised of—

Wheat	3,335,303 bushels.
Rye	88,197 "
Barley	82,251 "
Buckwheat	57,884 "
Oats	4,988,008 "
Corn	22,634,211 "
Tobacco	564,326 pounds, 49.00 per cent increase to 1850.
Hay	164,932 tons, 264.96 per cent increase to 1850.
Wool	650,000 pounds.
Value of home manufactures	\$993,567

In the year 1850, there was raised of—

		Est. value.			Est. value.
Wheat....bush.	9,414,575	\$9,414,575	Maple sugar ...	248,904	\$24,890
Rye	83,364	41,682	Molasses ..galls.	8,354	4,000
Barley.....	110,795	55,397	Bees-wax & hon'y	869,444	434,722
Buckwheat	184,504	92,252	Hops.....	3,551	1,775
Clover-seed.....	3,427	17,135	Hay	601,952	24,890
Oth. grass-seeds.	14,880	28,760	Corn.....	57,646,984	28,820,492
Flax-seed.....	10,787	16,000	Oats.....	10,087,241	2,521,810
Potatoes	841,394	420,697	Orch'd products.	446,049
Peas and beans.	82,814	41,407	Garden products,		
Sweet potatoes.	157,433	78,916	exclusive of po-		
Tobacco....lbs.	2,514,861	150,891	tatoes.....	127,494
Wool.....	2,150,133	645,033	Home manufac-		
Butter	12,526,543	1,252,654	tures.....	1,155,902
Cheese.....	1,278,225	383,467	Wine.....	2,997	2,997
Total.....					\$46,924,716

There were sixteen woolen manufactories in 1850, employing 174 workmen—using 396,264 pounds of wool, at a value of \$115,364, and yielding products of the value of \$206,572. Their numbers, and the amount of capital employed in them, has been greatly increased within the past four years. Cotton has been successfully raised in small quantities in the southern portion of the State. Hemp is indigenous, and will become, from the facility with which it is raised, a valuable crop. Clover, blue-grass, timothy, and many other grasses, grow luxuriantly in every part of the State. Among the most common fruits may be mentioned the plumb, crab-apple, wild cherry, persimmon, black-mulberry, cranberry, huckleberry, gooseberry, currant, strawberry, and blackberry. The hickory-nut, butter-nut, black walnut, pecan, and papaw; the apple, peach, pear, and quince; the turnip, beet, rutabaga, cabbage, cauliflower, tomato, and all the fruits and vegetables found in similar latitudes, are seen in our gardens. The castor-bean is cultivated to a considerable extent, and the oil used frequently as a lubricator of machinery, and for lamps.

The relative position of Illinois to the other States of the Union is high, as will appear from the following facts:—

She is the tenth State in the number of acres of improved land, and the seventh State in the value of her improved farms. The States having a larger quantity of land in cultivation are—

	Acres in cultivation.		Acres in cultivation.
New York	12,408,968	Tennessee	5,175,173
Pennsylvania.....	8,628,619	Kentucky.....	11,368,270
Virginia	10,360,135	Ohio.....	9,851,493
North Carolina.....	5,453,977	Indiana.....	5,046,543
Georgia.....	6,378,479		

Georgia, called in recent times the Empire State of the South, contains 1,660,800 acres more land than Illinois, and 54,631 more inhabitants, and has been a member of the Confederacy since 1788, while Illinois was admitted thirty years thereafter, yet the cash value of farms in Illinois is \$379,833 greater than the cash value of farms in Georgia, and the value of farming implements in Illinois is \$511,401 more than their value in Georgia. Alabama, with a population approximating that of this State, and an area of 50,722 square miles, sinks still lower in the comparison. The value of her farms is less than ours by \$32,010,046! and her farming

implements and machinery by \$1,279,898. North Carolina, one of the Original Thirteen States, with a population of 808,903 souls, and an area of 50,000 square miles, and with nearly as much improved land as Illinois, does not make a better figure. The value of our farms exceeds that of hers by \$28,241,424! and our farming implements those of hers by \$2,474,029. Similar instances could be advanced by reference to the Southern States, but it is unnecessary, to heap Pelion upon Ossa and Ossa upon Pelion.

In some of the staple products she ranks very high. For example, in the article of Indian corn she is the third producing State. In 1850, Ohio produced the largest crop, 59,078,693, next Kentucky, 58,675,591, and third Illinois, 57,646,984.

She was the fifth wheat-growing State at that period, the four higher being New York, producing 13,121,498, Pennsylvania, 15,367,691, Ohio, 14,487,351, and Virginia, 11,232,616—and the 13th State in the number of her manufacturing establishments producing over \$500. She had of these 3,099, and the States having more, were—

Maine.....	3,682	Pennsylvania.....	22,036
New Hampshire.....	3,301	Maryland.....	3,863
Massachusetts.....	9,631	Virginia.....	4,433
Connecticut.....	3,913	Kentucky.....	3,471
New York.....	23,823	Ohio.....	10,550
New Jersey.....	4,863	Indiana.....	4,326

We proceed now, by an easy and natural transition, to the animal kingdom, and commence with the domestic animals. She is the eighth State in the value of her live stock. The actual wealth of the State in this department consisted in 1850 of—

Horses.....	267,653	} Increase from 1840	78,991
Asses and mules.....	10,573		
Working oxen.....	76,156	} " "	285,761
Milch cows.....	294,671		
Other cattle.....	541,209	} " "	498,371
Sheep.....	894,043		
Swine.....	1,915,907	" "	420,653

Of the aggregate estimated value of \$24,209,258. The first thing that strikes us with these figures, is the inadequacy of the supply of horses for the actual wants of the State—a want increasing every day, and which must be supplied either by raising or the more expensive mode of importations from abroad. There are but three-and-a-half horses to each farm, and this leaves none for the drays, carts, wagons, and other vehicles used in transporting produce to the railroads, to market, &c.; goods, merchandise, &c., through the streets of our cities and towns; none for our public works, or for the saddle, or the equipage of the wealthier classes—a necessity which will appear greater when it is recollected that no allowance, in giving three-and-a-half horses to each farm, is made for those that are too young for working and those kept exclusively for breeding. This necessity has been so seriously felt that a resort has been had to oxen and mules, and their inferiority is so great that it is fair to presume that it was the necessity alone which brought them into such general use. Of milch cows there is likewise a great deficiency—the number of cows and other cattle together falling below the number of inhabitants. There is rather more than one sheep for each of the inhabitants, and something over double as many swine. In the present condition of our prairie pastures, 30,000,000 more of all kinds of domestic animals might be supported.

We have seen that the annual value of the agricultural products of the State, so far as enumerated in our table, was by a rough estimate \$46,924,176, and the value of live-stock \$24,209,258, or together they were of the value of \$71,133,974. This will give to each inhabitant an interest in the annual products of the State equal to \$84; now, if we add to this the value of the animals slaughtered, the value of the farms, farming implements, &c., each inhabitant, if the property were equally divided, would be entitled to \$210, and if we add to this the value of 23,421,848 acres of land out of cultivation, and not included in farms, it increases the amount of each inhabitant's share to \$292.

Without taking into our estimate the value of stock or farms, the annual yield of the State is equal to \$55 for each inhabitant. Leaving out of view the subject of live-stock of every kind, the yield per acre of all the land in cultivation for 1850 was something over nine dollars per acre. To each inhabitant there was a yield of a fraction over eleven bushels of wheat, and a fraction over sixty-seven bushels of corn. These two articles constitute a large part of the support of the population. The rye is principally used in the distilleries of spirits, and the barley in the manufacture of beer, a favorite drink with the German population, who make a vast consumption of it. The oat crop is, for the most part, fed away to the horses, mules, and oxen.

The average yield of butter from the milch cows was $42\frac{1}{2}$ pounds each, and the average weight of the fleeces of the sheep was $2\frac{1}{2}$ pounds.

We proceed now hurriedly to give a list of the wild animals. In the early days of the State there were many wild horses ranging through the forest and over the prairies. They were stout, hardy, and swift, but under size, and were much used by the Indians, from which they acquired the name of Indian ponies. They were thought to be indigenous, but the better opinion is that they were the descendants of the horses introduced by the early French settlers. The buffalo was once an inhabitant of the State, but has now entirely disappeared; also the deer, and great numbers of these still remain. They constituted a large part of the support of the early settlers. The brown bear is another native of the State, rapidly disappearing before the advance of civilization.

The following constitute a majority of the wild animals still to be found in the State. The grey wolf, the black wolf, and the prairie wolf; the panther, wild cat, fox, raccoon, opossum, gopher, and squirrel; also the muskrat, otter, and beaver are occasionally found about the rivers and lakes.

The birds are numerous and of a variety of kinds, but are principally those known in the older States.

Wild turkeys, geese, ducks, swans, cranes, prairie chickens, quails, and partridges are very numerous; so much so, that the farmer has rarely need of a poultry yard.

The rivers and lakes abound in fine fish, the most common of which are the bass, pickerel, pike, trout, perch, white fish, &c.

There are few poisonous reptiles or troublesome insects; snakes are not so numerous as in mountainous States, or so poisonous as further south. There are many different kinds of the lizard, but they are generally harmless. There are innumerable frogs in the sloughs and swamps, and some are said to be of the genuine species held in such high esteem by the French *gourmand*, because of its rich, rare, and *recherche* flavor.

The silk-worm is found in the State—the honey-bee in every county. The most troublesome insect is the musketoe, which makes its appearance about the 1st of August and remains till the 15th of October. But it is impossible in the limits of an article of this kind to enter further into such details.

Such are our resources, which every day will continue to increase. As our population becomes more and more dense, and the means of support more difficult of procurement, the system of cultivation will be improved, and with it the yield per acre. The sloughs and swamps will be dried up, the alluvial bottoms will be drained, the forests will disappear, the rough places be made smooth, and every nook and corner of the State be brought into cultivation. The bowels of the earth will give forth their rich treasures, and the industry, ingenuity, and enterprise of our citizens will turn them into a thousand forms, augmenting at each turn their own and the wealth of the State.

Art. IV.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

MARSHALL PINCKNEY WILDER, OF DORCHESTER, MASSACHUSETTS.

THE subject of this article was born on the twenty-second of September, 1798, in Rindge, Cheshire County, New Hampshire. His father, SAMUEL LOCKE WILDER, a highly respectable merchant and farmer in that place, was named for an uncle, Rev. Samuel Locke, D. D.,* President of Harvard University, and was a native of Lancaster, Mass., a town that was originally settled by his ancestors, who performed important military services in the suppression of Shay's rebellion, in the Indian and Revolutionary wars, and who filled a variety of civil offices with honor to themselves and their country. His grandfather was one of the seven delegates from Worcester County, in the Massachusetts Convention in 1787, who voted for the adoption of the Constitution of the United States. Of these venerable men the "Worcester Magazine" says, "Of all the ancient Lancaster families, there is no one that has sustained so many important offices as that of the Wilders."†

His mother, Mrs. Anna Sherwin Wilder, was a lady of quick perception, tender sensibility, and great moral worth, and therefore well qualified to be "a help meet to her husband in the nurture of their son, the eldest of nine children."

Nor did his parents neglect his physical and intellectual training. Like wise master builders, they looked well to the foundation, not cloistering their firstborn in their own habitation, but sending him forth into the fresh air to prosecute the labors and sports of the field. Thus they sought for him a firm constitution, a commanding figure, and the full development of all his energies. In this way they inspired in him a love of nature and cultivated a rural taste which has distinguished him in the history of American agriculture and horticulture.

After the advantages of home education and of the district school, his parents sent him, at twelve years of age, to New Ipswich Academy, in the hope of awakening in him a desire for collegiate and professional studies.

* Book of the Lockes, pp. 31, 99, 198.

† *Ibid.*, vol. II., p. 45.

In these branches his progress was laudable; but it was still evident to his teachers and friends that his desire was for more active life; and his dominant passion, for rural pursuits.

His parents were sufficiently versed in philosophy to understand the importance of considering the native aptness of their child (not always duly regarded) in education and in the selection of business. They wisely studied his constitution, watched his inclination and taste, and learned his individuality, that they might ultimately see him settled in the employment for which he was best fitted, and in which his prospects of usefulness, success, and happiness, would be the most cheering. They sought to follow, not to control nature. When he had nearly completed the studies preparatory for college, they gave him his choice, either to fit for one of the learned professions, to engage in mercantile business with his father, or to labor on the farm. He at once relinquished all idea of the first. But for each of the others he had a fondness; and after deliberating some time between them he, true to his instinct, chose the latter, and went into the field to practice the arts of cultivation.

But he had not long pursued them, when duty called him from the farm to his father's store, with the business of which he had long been more less or conversant. Never was there a fairer opportunity for a father to prefer his son, and at once advance him, as too many do, to a rank superior to that of other boys and clerks in the same establishment.

But the sound judgment of his father yielded not to the solicitations of parental tenderness and partiality. It assigned him the place of the youngest apprentice, with the promise of promotion with growth in years and in the knowledge of trade, thus devolving on him the necessity of acquiring a minute acquaintance with business. This was a severe trial to his ambition, patience, and perseverance. But it had its reward; it taught him to earn money, and therefore to spend it judiciously; to be the arbiter of his own fortune, to serve with fidelity, and, consequently, to rule with candor and steadfastness, and to encounter the difficulties incident to a large mercantile business, and hence to sympathize with others.

This training we regard of incalculable importance. Many fail as masters, because as boys they were never thoroughly disciplined; and therefore are unskillful in the direction of others.

Here may be found the secret of his success as a merchant. This discipline burst the bubble which his boyish fancy had inflated, and constrained him to look steadily at the sober realities of life, and to rise by personal exertion, step by step, to the elevation which he has attained. If, at that period, his father had exalted him to a rank next to himself in the store, we might have been called to mourn the suspension of his business, the wreck of his fortune, and the prostration of his energy. But this burden taught him to grapple with difficulties, and contributed towards the formation of a good character, which inspires confidence, makes friends, and always insures either success or honorable failure.

Having served his apprenticeship with ability and fidelity, and attained his majority, his father received him into the firm; and together they transacted an extensive and lucrative business. On the last evening of the year 1820, he was united in marriage to Miss Tryphosa Jewett of that town, a most estimable lady, by whom he had six children, and who died August 31, 1831. On the morning of August 29, 1833, he was married to Miss Abby Baker, of Franklin, Mass., a lady of superior natural endow-

ments, of good education, and of great moral worth, by whom he also had six children, and who died of consumption in Aiken, S. C., April 4, 1854. Both of his wedded companions rest from their labors, and their works do follow them. Four of his children are not, for God hath taken them. But in these afflictions he has been sustained and comforted. His uniform health is attributable, in no small degree, to the strength and firmness of his constitution, to his habit of early rising, and to his daily exercise in the open air; perhaps, also, to a pleasing variety in his pursuits, and to the regularity of his life.

While he was a partner in business with his father, he filled the office of post-master in the town of his birth, and took a lively interest in all its organizations and public transactions. At the church, he was the leader of the choir; and on days of military parade, he appeared as captain of its company of light infantry. He began his military career at the early age of eighteen years, in connection with the staff of the twelfth regiment of militia of that State. Three years later, he was promoted to the rank of adjutant in the same body. After one year, he took the command of the new volunteer company above named; two years later he was elected lieutenant-colonel; and the next year, at the age of twenty-five, he took the command of the regiment; but soon resigned the station on account of his removal from Rindge to Boston. At that time, he was in the line of rapid promotion to the highest military post in the gift of his native State. For more than a quarter of a century, he has been an esteemed member of the ancient and honorable artillery company in this city, a corps composed of commissioned officers either in actual service or whose term has expired.

As a merchant in Boston, he commenced the wholesale West India goods business in 1825, in the firm of Wilder & Payson, Union Street. His partner was a son of the Rev. Seth Payson, D. D., pastor of the church in his native town. He brought with him a small capital, but an extensive and enviable reputation for activity, fidelity, and all those qualities which insure success, and at length took his stand among the merchant princes of Boston. His partner and place of business were soon changed; and the firm took the name of Wilder & Smith, North Market Street, then new and unpaved, but now one of the most thriving parts of the commercial metropolis of New England. But his desire for an extension of his mercantile operations, induced him, in 1830, to remove to Central Wharf, where he continued the wholesale and importing trade on an enlarged scale, and soon transacted a good and lucrative business. Having secured, in a good degree, the confidence and respect of his fellow citizens, they began to seek the energy of his action and the wisdom of his counsels in their monetary institutions, as a director or other officer in their banks and insurance companies. He has been director in the Hamilton Bank and National Insurance Company, for more than twenty years, and also in the New England Life Insurance Co., and in a few kindred institutions. He has declined many similar situations tendered him, for it has been a maxim with him never to receive a trust to which he could not give the attention requisite to a faithful discharge of its duties. He allowed none of these offices to conflict with his business, for it was another of his maxims that one employment steadily pursued through life, will yield a better income than many imperfectly followed and frequently changed.

When, therefore, we speak of variety in his labors, let us not be understood to imply that his capital and energy have ever been so divided be-

tween different pursuits as to preclude one commanding object. When we denominate him a military officer, a bank director, a politician, a horticulturist, and an agriculturist, we designate not his profession, but his pastime—his diversion, that to which he turned for relaxation from the severity of labor in his appropriate vocation. He is a merchant by education and profession, well bred to trade and thoroughly versed in it. This has been his chief business in Boston, for thirty years. To this he has made all other pursuits auxiliary and subordinate; and his success therein has contributed largely to his usefulness in other departments in which he has sought recreation, health, and comfort, and which have elevated him to a position that commands and receives general respect both at home and abroad.

When the storm arose in the commercial world in 1837—a season in which the fortunes of many were wrecked, and the hearts of a still greater number failed them for fear, it found his ship with sails furled and yards braced, ready to encounter the fury of the blast. He was prepared for the storm; and when it came, he could take hold of the rudder with a firm hand and guide her with undaunted courage and in safety. At that crisis, when many contracted their business, he could safely expand his. He formed a new mercantile connection, and became a partner in the commission house of Parker, Blanchard & Wilder, Water-street, subsequently called the firm of Parker, Wilder & Parker; and at present, Parker, Wilder & Co., Pearl-street; a firm which ranks among the most respectable and extensive commission houses in the department of domestic manufactures. It either owns or transacts the business of a large number of cotton and woolen mills in Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and other New England States. In this extensive mercantile house, Mr. Wilder is one the senior partners, acquainted with all the branches of the business, and ready to co-operate with the members of the firm, but of late years specially devoted to its financial department.

If you would see him at his private desk, wend your way up the staircase, as the sun approaches its meridian, enter the large ware-rooms; pass the salesmen, and enter the counting-room, where are half a score of clerks and accountants—all busily employed under the direction of the junior members of the firm. If you inquire after Mr. Wilder, you will be conducted through his senior partner's room—one of the elders among the merchant princes of Boston—a son of New Hampshire, and a brother of Hon. Joel Parker, Royal Professor of Law in Cambridge. In the rear of this room a door opens into an apartment, at one corner of which, by the window, sits the subject of our narrative. Observe the books and pamphlets in his favorite departments of thought and action on your left, and the files of papers on your right. Look at his desk—what a quantity of letters to be read, their contents noted, and answers rendered! Read his memorandum of business to be transacted for the day—enough, you imagine, to employ half a dozen men. He is intensely occupied; but he catches the first sound of your voice, and rises to greet you in as cordial a manner as if you were his familiar friend, and he had been long expecting you. After mutual salutations, and when you are seated, you feel as much at home as if you were in your own dwelling. If he is too intent on business to devote to you the time and attention which you desire, he frankly avows the fact, and asks you to postpone the subject of your interview to a specified hour. At the time appointed you find that his business has been disposed of; his letters answered; and that he is in readiness to resume your sub-

ject, and to devote to it requisite time and attention. It relates, we will suppose, to a branch of horticulture. His habit of conversation you find free and unreserved. He communicates with ease and affability the results of his reading, observation, and ripe experience. In your interviews you may be occasionally interrupted by persons calling upon him for a moment, on a great variety of subjects.

If your inquiry respects plants, under cultivation in his conservatories, he perhaps invites you to ride out with him and see them. You pass through Roxbury to his place, which is the first house in Dorchester, on the road to Milton and Quincy. It is called *Hawthorn Grove*, and is one of the most delightful suburban residences in the vicinity of Boston.

Here he conducts you to the plants which you are curious to examine, and speaks to you of their history and habits. He guides you through his conservatories, deservedly ranked among the best furnished in the country; and with the plants therein he appears as familiar as Cyrus was with the soldiers in his vast army, calling them by name, and giving at pleasure their locality and family connections. We will suppose that you pass on through these conservatories into his garden, tastefully laid out and adorned, and thence into his nurseries, which cover about ten acres in the highest state of cultivation, and which contain many thousands of young fruit trees, particularly the pear. For the last species of fruit his grounds are as distinguished as his green-houses are for the best varieties and the most extensive collection of camillas. Of the pear, he has exhibited, at one time, three hundred and seventy-five varieties.

When you have accomplished the object of your mission and taken your departure, reflection suggests the inquiry how a gentleman engaged in a mercantile business so extensive, can have acquired a fund of information so varied and extensive, a knowledge so profound of the sciences of horticulture, agriculture, and kindred arts. A word of caution is needful, before we answer this question. It may not be wise nor safe for every merchant to prosecute so many and such varied subordinate pursuits. Singleness of purpose and concentration of energy are the general rules of success. All have not the same versatility of genius, the same adherence to system, the same inclination, taste, and indomitable perseverance. Each must study himself, and thus ascertain what he can attempt with safety, and with a reasonable prospect of prosperity and happiness. So much variety in the objects of pursuit, while it would probably distract or perplex most persons, would utterly disqualify some for business, and insure their loss of health, fortune, and life.

A more familiar acquaintance with Mr. Wilder's natural endowments and private habits, discloses the manner in which he has been enabled to make so extensive attainments, and to pursue objects so various. Blessed by nature with quick perceptive faculties, and unusual versatility of mind, he acquires with ease and rapidity, and readily applies his acquisitions to his numerous and varied employments. Besides, he is a rigid economist of time, a close adherent to system. Every hour has its appropriate business, which is attended to in its appointed season. In the evening, and at early dawn, he is in his well-selected and valuable library, either investigating subjects which the labors and scenes of the past day have suggested, or planning the business of the approaching day.

When his gardeners, nurserymen, and others employed on his place present themselves at however early an hour in the morning, his rule is to

meet them, and assign to each company its appropriate business, under its respective foreman, who receives the requisite instruction and orders. Away they go to their work, and he returns to breakfast with his family, and with them to acknowledge the Giver of all their mercies.

Next he goes forth to see that each man is at his post, performing his duty in the best manner, to drop a word of encouragement to the industrious and faithful, and by his own example to encourage and instruct them, now training a vine or giving a finishing touch to a bouquet, then wielding the spade or the pruning knife, hybridizing a camelia, planting a tree, inserting a bud, sketching a flower, or gathering the first fruit of a new variety of pear for subsequent study, delineation, and description. At ten o'clock, or thereabouts, he doffs his garden robes, and is attired—in his carriage—and on his way to Boston, where the rest of the day is devoted to his mercantile business. This system he has steadily pursued for a long course of years; and in his strict adherence to it lies the secret of his success, and of his elevation to the distinguished position which he holds as a merchant, a horticulturist, and an agriculturist.

Hitherto we have spoken of him principally in the first of these capacities. But we must also notice his progress in the others, related to the former in his multifarious business, as the planets to the central orb around which they revolve.

When Mr. Wilder moved from Boston to his present residence, he was associated with gentlemen of taste in the Massachusetts Horticultural Society, with such men as Dearborn, Phinney, Fessenden, Lowell, Manning, Story, Everett, and Webster, and with others of fair fame who still live. The object of this organization was the promotion of horticulture; and as a means to that end, it contemplated the publication of its transactions, a library, exhibitions of fruits and flowers, an experimental garden, and a rural cemetery. The two latter of these it sought to realize by the purchase of Mount Auburn. But many of the proprietors in this *Pere la Chaise* of America felt little interest in the legitimate object of the association. At length it was deemed expedient to give exclusive control of the Cemetery, while the original organization should confine its efforts to horticulture.

But a large sum had been invested in this purchase, and a considerable annual income was accruing from the sale of lots. On the motion of Mr. Wilder, the terms for the separation of the cemetery interest from the Horticultural Society were referred to a joint committee, and after much deliberation were agreed upon. By these, the Horticultural Association received one-fourth part of the income of the Mount Auburn Cemetery from the sale of lots, an arrangement that has proved in the highest degree beneficial to both bodies, and for which the Horticultural Society are much indebted to Mr. Wilder and his associate, Hon. Elijah Vose.

In 1840, he was elected President of the Massachusetts Horticultural Society, an office which he filled with honor to himself and to that association for eight years. During his administration, it greatly increased in the number of its members, in its resources, usefulness, and respectability. It erected its beautiful hall in School-street, at the laying of the cornerstone and the dedication of which he delivered appropriate speeches.* It held two triennial festivals in Faneuil Hall, occasions which congregated

* See its transactions for 1845.

the elite of city and country, and which will long be remembered for their luxurious entertainments, and for their soul-stirring speeches from Webster, Everett, and other chief masters of eloquence. When he retired from the office, the society accompanied its resolutions of thanks with a silver service, as a substantial testimonial of its gratitude for his valuable labors.

Both before and since that period, he has contributed largely for the advancement of pomology by the annual importation of fruit trees from the chief European cultivators, by the encouragement of nurserymen, by the cultivation of trees and plants in variety in his own grounds, by his extensive correspondence with fruit growers, and by his addresses and communications devoted to this interest. Hence, upon the organization of the *American Pomological Society*, a national institution, embracing the various States and Territories of our Union, he was elected President of that body, an office to which he has been elected for the third time.

At its session in Philadelphia, September, 1852, he delivered, by appointment, a most eloquent eulogy on the life, labors, and death of his intimate friend, Andrew Jackson Downing, the great rural architect and landscape gardener of America, who perished in the conflagration of the steamer *Henry Clay*, on the twenty-eighth of the preceding July, a gentleman who was an honor to his country, and was honored by her; and was distinguished on both sides of the Atlantic for his numerous publications and valuable services.

The closing paragraph of that production we will quote as an illustration of the force of Mr. Wilder's diction, the beauty of his style, and the range of his thoughts:—

Downing is dead! Yet how little of such men can perish! The clayey tenement may indeed fall and crumble; but to him who dwelt in it, a place is assigned in the firmament of American genius, far above the storms and convulsions of earth, in that clear upper sky, where he shall shine forever to illumine the path of intelligence, enterprise, and virtue, and henceforth to enkindle in the human mind a love of order, taste, and beauty. We rank him with those who start improvements which advance ages after they are dead, and who are justly entitled to the consideration and gratitude of mankind. Washington and his illustrious associates are dead; but the liberty which they achieved still lives and marches in triumph and glory through the earth. Franklin is dead; but the spark which his miraculous wand drew from heaven speaks with tongues of fire and electrifies the globe. Fulton is dead; but he awoke the spirit of invention which turns the machinery of man—aye, he awoke also the genius of navigation—

“ And heaven inspired
To love of useful glory, roused mankind,
And in unbounded commerce mixed the world.”

Downing also is dead; but the principles of artistic propriety and ornament, of rural economy and domestic comfort, which he revealed, await a more full and perfect development; and as they advance toward their glorious consummation, grateful millions will honor and cherish his name. His memory shall live forever.*

At the recent meeting of the Pomological Association in Boston, Mr. Wilder was re-elected its president, and delivered an able address on the arts of cultivation, and other topics, embodying the results of his long and valuable experience.

* Proceedings at American Pomological Congress, 1852.

In conclusion, he exhorted the members to diligence and perseverance, and said: "Gentlemen, go on. Prosecute the work you have so honorably commenced. Sow the seeds of your best fruits, raise new varieties, ply the arts of judicious cultivation, study the laws of nature, and extend your researches and labors, till our beloved land shall be adorned with orchards, vineyards, and gardens, and man shall realize the poet's idea of *Paradise Regained*."*

During the sessions, which lasted three days, Mr. Wilder gave a magnificent Pomological Levee, at which about two hundred gentlemen were present, including his Excellency the Governor of the Commonwealth, and other distinguished guests. The editors of the *Horticulturist*, in their description of the occasion, say: "The table was the richest and most tasteful we have ever seen;" and this was the expression of many who have attended the most brilliant affairs of this kind ever given in Boston. The occasion was free from formalities. Sentiments were given by the host and responded to in brief speeches. At the close of the session, Hon. Mr. Benson, M. C., from Maine, proposed the following resolution:—

Resolved, That the thanks of the society are most cordially presented to the President, Hon. Marshall P. Wilder, for the prompt, able, and impartial manner in which he has presided over its deliberations; and we hereby assure him that the members will long cherish a lively recollection of the pleasure enjoyed at his bountiful and brilliant festive entertainment with which he complimented the society.

Mr. Lines, of Connecticut, said he was unwilling that this resolution should pass with a silent vote. It was due to the gentleman who has presided over the discussions of the society with so much dignity and ability. He considered that the position in pomology which the president had reached conferred more honor upon him than the Presidency of the United States could do. A gentleman who confers such immense benefits upon the whole country—he might say the world—as Hon. Mr. Wilder does, is entitled to distinguished honors. He hoped this resolution would be passed by a standing vote. Several other gentlemen offered remarks in the highest degree complimentary.

The resolution was unanimously adopted, every delegate rising in his seat.

Mr. Wilder's knowledge of horticulture well qualified him to take a leading part in enterprises for the advancement of agriculture. Before the year 1849, when he vigorously undertook the work, something had been done for the progress of this art in Massachusetts. There was a State organization, with kindred associations, in several of the principal counties, which had labored with commendable zeal. These, united with the exertions of Pickering, Coleman, Lowell, and other distinguished cultivators, had prepared the way for more rapid progress. A general conviction prevailed that such an effort was demanded, since emigration had annually conveyed hundreds of the sons of the old Bay State from the farms of their fathers to the rich fields and prairies of the West, and her agriculture had not advanced proportionably with her manufactures and Commerce.

He saw and deplored the evil, and resolved to do what he could to correct it. He united with others in calling a convention in the shire town

of his own county to deliberate on the subject—a convention which formed the Norfolk County Agricultural Society, over which he has presided from its organization, and which ranks among the best associations of the kind in the country. He delivered its first annual address, on the subject of agricultural education, in which he was nobly sustained by such men as Dearborn, Briggs, Winthrop, Quincy, Everett, Webster, and others, who together constituted a galaxy of genius seldom witnessed. Many thousands were present, and the county was carried in favor of the cause by acclamation. The meeting was faithfully and fully reported; the transactions published, extensively circulated, and attentively read. A general interest was awakened, and public sentiment changed. It encouraged existing agricultural societies, and led to the formation of others in counties where none had previously existed.

Its salutary influence was not confined to Massachusetts. In some respects this may be considered an era in the history of American agriculture, for Mr. Wilder has constantly kept the public mind awake to the subject, by prosecuting it still further in addresses, delivered the next year before the agricultural societies in the counties of Hampshire and Berkshire, and in the State of New Hampshire. On the latter of these occasions, in the presence of Daniel Webster, and other illustrious sons of New Hampshire, who followed him with speeches, Mr. Wilder closed with this patriotic apostrophe:—

My country! let the eagle of thy liberty, which so lately stood upon the cleft of thine Atlantic coast, but which stands to-day upon the sunny height of thy rocky mounts, stretch her broad wings from shore to shore, and continue to shelter the happy millions of thy sons! And from those wings, year by year, may her young eaglets fly to other lands, till the reign of universal freedom shall introduce a universal jubilee! My country, my country! glorious prospects are before thee! Union, wealth, and power; intelligence, virtue, and immortal renown!

The cause of agricultural education he presented to the Agricultural Committee of the Legislature during the succeeding winter, and at his instance a bill was reported and finally passed, authorizing the Executive to appoint a board of five commissioners, under State patronage, who were to examine the subject and report thereon to the next Legislature. At that time he was President of the Senate, and subsequently was appointed chairman of that commission, whose report, drawn up by himself and Dr. Hitchcock, of Amherst, is a document of great and permanent value.

In 1851 Mr. Wilder, with others, called a convention of delegates from local agricultural associations in the State to meet them in the State House, in Boston, and of that body he was chosen president. This, with the preceding action, led to the creation of a permanent Board of Agriculture by the Legislature, sustaining a similar relation to this industrial art as the Board of Education does to the system of common instruction—having its own laws and secretary, and constituting a co-ordinate branch of State government. Of this Board, Mr. Wilder has been a member from the beginning, and has taken a prominent part in all its deliberations and actions. It has a department in the capitol, with a secretary who superintends the farm connected with the State Reform School in Westborough, exerts a salutary and powerful influence upon the agriculture of the Commonwealth, and promises to do still more for its advancement.

At that time agricultural societies existed in most of the States of the

American Union; but it was generally believed that they needed a confederation or a consolidation into one organization, co-extensive with the land. After much correspondence and conference with prominent agriculturists in other States, he issued, with their concurrence, a circular for a National Convention, which met in the city of Washington on the 24th of June, 1852, and organized the United States Agricultural Society, of which he was elected, and still continues the president. This meeting was attended by numerous cultivators from all parts of the country, by the members of Congress, by the heads of departments, and by the President of the United States.

This body held its next session in the same city, February 2d, 1853, when he delivered an address, which was published in its transactions and journal, and in which he paid a just tribute to his illustrious friend, Hon. Daniel Webster, who died on the 24th of the preceding October. It held its first exhibition in Springfield, Massachusetts, October 19th, 20th, and 21st, 1853—an exhibition which was confined to that noble animal, the horse. It was an occasion which convened from 10,000 to 20,000 people, and which the journals of that date pronounced one of the most imposing, instructive, and exciting scenes ever witnessed in America.

"A thousand horse and men to ride,
With flowing tail and flying mane,
A thousand horse, the wild, the free,
Like waves that follow o'er the sea."

Several thousands of dollars were awarded in premiums. A full report of the services, and of Mr. Wilder's speech at the agricultural banquet, may be found in the journals of the society.

Its second exhibition, restricted to cattle, was held in Springfield, Ohio, October 25th, 26th, and 27th, 1854, an occasion which congregated many thousands from the North-western States, in addition to large delegations from other parts of the country, and from the Canadas, an occasion which brought together the finest display of cattle ever witnessed since the beasts of the field were let out of the ark by Noah, or were named in Eden by our common father. Over this vast assembly Mr. Wilder presided with an ease and appropriateness peculiar to himself. Excellent speeches were delivered by Hon. Cassius M. Clay, of Kentucky, Hon. Mr. Campbell, of Ohio, Gov. Wright, of Indiana, and other gentlemen of celebrity.*

Of Mr. Wilder's speech, the journals of that day and place remark:—

"He addressed the assembled hosts in dignified and eloquent style. He spoke, as cheered in heart, at the spirit manifested in the great cause of agriculture by the hardy yeomanry who had come up hither, and joined in the pleasures as well as exercises of the occasion. His remarks were received with interruptions of applause, and demonstrations of high approbation rent the welkin as he sat down."

We have adverted to the friendship which existed between Mr. Wilder and the lamented Daniel Webster. They were alike in their admiration of nature, in their rural tastes and pursuits, and in their love of country. Their last united efforts were for the promotion of agriculture, dear to both of them, and for a closer bond of union between the sons of New

* Transactions for 1854.

Hampshire. Both appeared together upon the stage, and addressed the vast assembly in Manchester, N. H., at the anniversary of the Agricultural Society of that State, in the autumn of 1850. Both contributed toward the formation of the United States Agricultural Society, and of the association in Boston, called "The Sons of New Hampshire." Of the latter, Mr. Webster was the *first* President, and Mr. Wilder the *second*, chosen to succeed him after his death. One presided at its first festival; and the other at its second.

When the great expounder of the Constitution died, there was no more sincere mourner than Mr. Wilder. He noticed the melancholy event on four distinct public occasions. The first was on the 30th of November, 1852, the day of the celebration of the obsequies of Mr. Webster in Boston, when at the head of many hundreds of the sons of New Hampshire, residents in that city and its suburbs, he received the Executive and Legislature of his native State, escorted them to the Capitol, and introduced them to the Executive and Legislature of Massachusetts, where he said:—

"A mighty one has fallen! Our elder brother, New Hampshire's favorite son, is no more. All that was mortal of Daniel Webster, the great expounder of constitutional authority, and national rights, has been consigned to the bosom of his mother earth. The loss to us, to the country, and to the world, is irreparable. The whole nation mourns. Our city is hung in the drapery of woe, and the mourners go about the streets."*

The second was at the anniversary of the United States Agricultural Society in the city of Washington, February 2, 1853; when he thus introduced the subject:—

"The Marshfield farmer is numbered with the mighty dead. He was a farmer—the son of a farmer, and the noblest product of American soil."

And concluded with this beautiful apostrophe:—

"Yes, sainted patriot! *There*, in those celestial fields, where the sickle of the great Reaper shall no more cut down the wise and the good, we hope at last to meet thee—*there*, in those pure realms, where the rainbow never fades, where thy brilliant star shall shine with pure effulgence, and where the high and glorious aspirations of thy soul shall be forever realized."†

The third was at a meeting of the Sons of New Hampshire, October, 1853, when he was elected to succeed Mr. Webster as President of that body.

"My heart will never cease to rise in praise and thanksgiving to the Giver of all good for the immaculate mind of Webster—a mind towering like the heaven-piercing summits of his native hills—but unlike them never clouded. His intellect shone clear as the blue ethereal of the upper sky."

The fourth was at the second festival of that body, in the same city, on the second of the succeeding month; when and where he presided; and after rendering just tributes to the memory of Judge Woodbury and other worthy sons of New Hampshire, and after alluding to Mr. Webster's former connection with that association, and to his masterly speech at its previous festival, he asked:—

* Webster Memorial, p. 230.

† See address in Journal of the United States Agricultural Society, vol. I., p. 21.

"Who of us can forget his majestic form and mountain brow, as he then stood before us, the very impersonation of greatness and power ?

'Like some tall cliff, that lifts its awful form,
Swells from the vale, and midway leaves the storm.'

And in view of the closing scenes of his life, fringed with the rosy tints of a fairer to-morrow ; in view of the serenity of his mind, his Christian resignation, and his hope of a glorious immortality, may we not, with little modification, add the other lines of this beautiful stanza ?—

'Though round his breast the rolling clouds were spread,
Eternal sunshine settled on his head.'

Mr. Wilder has been honored with seats in both branches of the Legislature, and in the Executive Council of the Commonwealth.

He is still in the midst of his days, and on the flood tide of success. As a merchant, he possesses a fair and enviable reputation. His valuable services in horticulture have made him extensively and favorably known on both sides of the Atlantic, while his contributions to the cause of agriculture, have rendered him a favorite with the common people, especially with the yeomanry of the whole country. In concurrence with this judgment, one of the standard periodicals of the city of Boston justly remarks :—

"Mr. Wilder has been for the last quarter of a century one of the 'solid men of Boston,' whose virtues have a practical existence, benefiting and ennobling the community of which they are members. But though engaged in the mercantile profession, he has, by extensive experimental practice, applied his acquired knowledge of rural arts, and has made large and valuable additions to the common stock, by his various discoveries, and improved modes of cultivation.

"His name, as the zealous patron and promoter of the noblest of all sciences, will fill a luminous page in the history of human progress and improvement—a page that will suffer no detriment by the lapse of years, and which will have its interpreter on every hillside, and in every valley where rural taste and refinement are found. Long may he live, the benefactor of his race, and the noblest type of honorable manhood."

His publications evince much study and research ; his style is concise, clear, and often elegant ; his diction, pure and forcible ; and his elocution, dignified and impressive. As a presiding officer over large deliberative assemblies, he has few equals, and probably no superiors, being in manner affable, in personal appearance commanding ; and in both thought and speech peculiarly apt and appropriate. May his example excite our youth, especially our young merchants and our noble yeomanry, to a more hopeful emulation ; and may the sequel of his history be as auspicious as its beginning ! The time has not yet arrived (may it come late !) to analyze his character, and to pronounce his eulogy.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

SHIPOWNERS—GOODS DELIVERED AND ACCEPTED.

In the Court of Queen's Bench, May 26th, 1854. *Brown vs. Byrne.*

Lord Campbell gave judgment in this case. He said this was a special case, extremely well argued before my brothers Wightman, Erle, Crompton, and myself, at the sittings after last term, by Mr. Millish and Mr. Blackburn; and the question for decision is shortly this:—Whether, in an action by a shipowner against the indorsee of a bill of lading, to whom goods have been delivered at Liverpool, and who has accepted them, the bill of lading making them deliverable, "he paying freight for them five-eighths of a penny per pound, with five per cent primage and average accustomed," the latter may lawfully claim to retain for £138 11s. 3d., the amount of the freight at rate specified, £1 16s. 3d.; on the ground that, by the custom of Liverpool, he is entitled to a deduction of three months' discount from the freight. It is admitted that the custom exists in fact, in regard of shipments from New Orleans, and some other ports in the southern States of the American Union, to Liverpool; but it is objected to as bad in law, because it is inconsistent with the written document, the bill of lading. Five-eighths of a penny on the weight of a cargo equals, it is said, £138 11s. 3d., the bill must be read as if that sum were specified in it, and this custom, if allowed, will change it to £136 15s. The principles on which this case is to be decided are perfectly clear; the difficulty lies in the application of them to the facts. Mercantile contracts are very frequently framed in a language peculiar to merchants; the intention of the parties, though perfectly well known to themselves, would often be defeated if this language were strictly construed according to its ordinary import in the world at large; evidence, therefore, of mercantile custom and usage is admitted in order to expound it and arrive at its true meaning. Again, in all contracts as to the subject matter of which known usages prevail, parties are found to proceed with the tacit assumption of these usages; they commonly reduce into writing the special particulars of their agreement, but omit to specify these known usages, which are included, however, as of course by mutual understanding; evidence, therefore, of such incidents is receivable. The contract, in truth, is partly express and in writing, partly implied or understood and unwritten. But in both these cases a restriction is established on the soundest principle; that the evidence received must not be of a particular which is repugnant to, or inconsistent with, the written contract. Merely that it varies the apparent contract is not enough to exclude the evidence; for it is impossible to add any material incident to the written terms of a contract without altering its effect more or less; neither in the construction of a contract among merchants, tradesmen, or others, will the evidence be excluded, because the words are in their ordinary meaning unambiguous, for the principle of admission is, that words perfectly unambiguous in their ordinary meaning are used by the contractors in a different sense from that. What words more plain than "a thousand," "a week," "a day?" yet the cases are familiar in which "a thousand" has been held to mean twelve hundred, "a week," a week only during the theatrical season, "a day" a working day. In such cases the evidence neither adds to nor qualifies, nor contradicts the written contract, it only ascertains it by expounding the language. Here the contract is to pay freight on delivery, at a certain rate per pound; is it inconsistent with this to allege that, by the custom, the shipowner on payment is bound to allow three months' discount? We think not. The written contract expressly settles the rate of payment; the custom does not set this aside, indeed it adopts it, as that upon which it is to act, by establishing a claim for allowance of discount upon freight to be paid after that rate. The consignee undertakes to pay freight on delivery after that rate; the shipowner undertakes to allow three months' discount on freight paid after

that rate: the latter contract is dependent on the former, but is not repugnant to it. If the bill of lading had expressed, or if from the language of it the intention of the parties could have been collected, that the freight, at the specified rate, should be paid free from all deductions customary or otherwise, then it would have been repugnant to it to set up the custom, and the case would have been brought within the restriction mentioned above. *Webb vs. Plummer*, 2 B. and A., 746; and *Hutton vs. Warren*, 1 M. and W., 466, are cases which illustrate this principle. In the first of these, by the custom of the country, the outgoing tenant was bound to do certain acts, and entitled to receive certain compensation; but the lease, which formed the written contract, bound him to do the same acts in substance, and specially provided for his payment as to some of them, omitting the other, and the court held that the expression as to some excluded the implication as to the remainder, and that the language of the lease was equivalent to a stipulation that the lessor should pay for the things mentioned and no more. The custom, therefore, would have been repugnant to the contract. But in the latter case, in which the former was expressly recognized, the court held that a specific provision as to a matter dehors the custom, left the custom untouched and in full force. This latter case appears to us like the present; the contract settles the rate of freight; whether or not discount is to be allowed on the payment it leaves open, and to that the custom applies. Our determination on this point makes it unnecessary to say anything as to a difference which was contended for by the defendant, between the original shipper and the indorsee of the bill of lading. We are of opinion that judgment should be entered for the defendant.

ASSIGNEES.

In the Supreme Court, New York, July, 1854. *Pearce and other vs. Beach and others*.

The argument in this case, it is conceded, is not void on its face. Its invalidity is argued from circumstances, the principal of which are the irrelevancy and position of the selected assignees. Both were clerks of the failing house, and both were men of very limited means, and being embarrassed by an antecedent failure of his own. The answer, however, and I think it is sufficient, to these objections, which *prima facie* might be indicated fraud, is, that although clerks, the chosen assignees were men of mature years, of unimpeachable integrity, and business capacity, perfectly acquainted with the character of the property assigned, and such as the creditors themselves would probably have selected, as is evinced by their subsequent approbation, had they been previously consulted. Although the assets amount nominally to the large sum of nearly \$500,000, the great majority of those interested in them express no wish for a change in the trusteeship; but, on the contrary, strongly urge that it should remain as it is. Under these circumstances, there being no danger to the fund, and no sufficient ground, after the explanation which has been given, to impeach the good faith of the assignment, the injunction must be dissolved, and the receiver denied.

It is proper that I should add, that the supposed necessity of waiting six months to divide the assets, is an error, and that a distribution may and ought, in the present state of moneyed affairs, to be immediately made. An early dividend, although possibly not quite so large, is more important than a slight increase to result from protracted recovery.

BOTTOMRY BOND BY BRITISH CONSUL—SHIP DESERTED.

A British ship, whose master and officers had been murdered in a mutiny came into a foreign port, (Campeachy,) where the British consul took possession of her, appointed a master, and gave a bottomry bond on the ship. The Court of Admiralty held this bond to be good, though admitting that there was no precedent for such a bond, which is ordinarily granted by the master of the ship. —*The Cynthia*, 16 Jurist, 748.

SUPPLIES FURNISHED A COASTER—LIEN—WAIVER.

In the United States District Court. Before Judge Sprague. Isaac Boss vs. schooner General Jackson—S. C. Hunt claimant.

This was a libel for supplies furnished to the schooner General Jackson while in the port of Boston. It appeared that the schooner was a coasting vessel, sailing between various ports in Maine and Boston, and the supplies were furnished at various times during which the vessel was owned by persons resident and citizens of Maine. The last item in the libelant's account was for articles delivered September 24, 1852. It was agreed that the vessel was purchased by the claimant in May, 1854, of her former owners in ignorance of the present claim; that the present claim had been assigned by the libelant as collateral security for a debt, which debt has been paid and the claim now belongs to the libelant.

1st. It was contended by the claimant that the libelant, after a delay of nearly two years, could not have this lien enforced against a bona fide purchaser, without notice; and, 2d, that the assignment of the claim operated as a waiver of the lien.

SPRAGUE, J.—In regard to the first point, the rule is, that the lien shall be enforced within a reasonable time, and what constitutes a reasonable time depends upon the circumstances of each case. It is generally held that a lien of this character should be enforced as soon as the expiration of the first voyage after supplies or materials furnished. That it is only under peculiar circumstances that the lien is extended beyond such time. These liens are created for the benefit of Commerce. Foreign vessels being in port without their owners, or any responsible parties connected with them, often require repairs and supplies. To enable the master to obtain these, this extraordinary lien is given. It is founded on the necessities of Commerce. But it is to be remembered that these liens are secret; there is no place where other parties may inquire and learn their existence or extent. Therefore, it is fit and proper that they should be promptly enforced and extinguished. To apply these principles to the present case, it appears that the last item of supplies furnished to this vessel was in 1852, about eighteen months before the filing of the libel, and during all that period the vessel was plying between this port and the ports of Maine as often as once a month, giving the libelant ample opportunity to enforce his claim, had he seen fit, long before the sale of the vessel to the present claimant. It must, therefore, be held that the libelant has waived his lien.

The opinion of the court on this point renders it unnecessary to consider the second point raised by the claimant.

Libel dismissed, with costs for claimant.

LIABILITY OF BANKERS FOR THE DUE APPROPRIATION OF LETTERS OF CREDIT.

An important decision in reference to letters of credit was recently given in the House of Lords, in the case of Orr vs. the Glasgow Union Bank, which, after a tedious litigation of ten years, has been decided in favor of the plaintiffs, who had been unsuccessful in the courts below. The facts are as follows:—

A person in Glasgow obtained a letter of credit from the bank in favor of Orr & Co. for £460, in the usual form—"Please honor the drafts, &c." The letter duly reached the Messrs. Orr, but was misappropriated by one of their clerks, and they never received the amount. The Glasgow Bank refused to pay the money, alleging that the letter having been duly delivered to Messrs. Orr, they were not accountable, or at least the Liverpool Bank should have been sued. The House of Lords, however, decided that the letter of credit was a contract by the Glasgow Bank to honor the drafts of Messrs. Orr & Co., and that, not having done so, it was not fulfilled, and they must pay the amount with interest and costs. The case was wrapped up in a good deal of the technicality of the Scotch law; but the result is to establish the liability of the banker, notwithstanding the forgery or miscarriage of the letter of credit.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

INCREASED IRREGULARITY IN COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS—BANK PANIC—HOARDING OF THE PRECIOUS METALS—RECKLESS BANKING, WITH ITS INEVITABLE RESULTS—DEFALCATIONS AND EMBEZZLEMENTS—SPECULATION DELAYED, NOT EXTINGUISHED—PROSPECTS OF IMPROVEMENT—RATES OF FOREIGN EXCHANGE—THE PRESSURE LESS FELT AT THE SOUTH—REPEAL OF THE USURY LAWS—CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF NEW YORK CITY AND STATE—BOSTON AND MASSACHUSETTS, NEW ORLEANS AND OHIO—DEPOSITS AT THE NEW YORK ASSAY OFFICE, AND DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS—OFFICIAL STATEMENT OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT ALL THE UNITED STATES PORTS FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1854—CASH DUTIES AT NEW YORK AND PHILADELPHIA—FOREIGN IMPORTS, BOTH OF GENERAL MERCHANDISE AND DRY GOODS, AT NEW YORK, FOR THE MONTH OF NOVEMBER, AND SINCE JANUARY FIRST—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR NOVEMBER AND SINCE JANUARY 1ST—EXPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES OF PRODUCE—PROSPECTIVE SHIPMENTS FROM THIS COUNTRY, AND INDICATIONS OF FUTURE TRADE, ETC.

THE country has not yet recovered from the commercial embarrassments already fully noticed, and in some respects the last month has been more trying than many of its predecessors since the excitement first commenced. The rates of interest have not been higher, but there has been a greater scarcity of funds, and borrowers have shown less courage in meeting their engagements. In all of our larger Northern cities the pressure has been borne less patiently, and there have been a greater number of failures. To add to the general panic, some events have transpired to shake public confidence in the stability of the banks, and this evil has been more severely felt than any other. The suspension of a large number of public and private banks and bankers throughout the country, but especially in Ohio, and the Northwestern States, and the consequent sacrifice which the poorer classes have been obliged to make upon their issues, have ministered to the natural distrust of these institutions which those not engaged in mercantile pursuits always feel in times of commercial embarrassment, and have led to the hoarding of specie, by which a sum quite large in the aggregate, has been kept out of circulation. The troubles which the difficulties connected with one or two Savings Banks in the city of New York, have thus brought upon the poor of that city, are beyond calculation. There has been more or less run upon all of these deposits for Savings, while the thrifty habits which these institutions beget, have been broken up by such a disturbance of confidence. Specie hoarded is so much active capital *idle*, when its busy industry is more than ever needed for the common good. The Germans, as a class, are very much given to the habit of hiding away their accumulated gains, and it will take several years of prosperity to do away the mischief thus accomplished. Throughout all the Western country, a large amount of specie has been distributed from the seaboard to replace the circulation discredited through the failure of the banks; but as fast as the precious metals are paid, they are gathered up, and garnered by those whose little store is thus hid from the public eye. We take very little credit to ourselves for having warned our readers of the probable result of the reckless banking commenced by the new banks which have sprung into existence within the last two years. It needed but little sagacity to foretell the end of such a course as most of them were pursuing. On page 714 of vol.

xxvii., and page 74 of vol. xxviii., as well as in many other numbers of the magazine, our readers will find the history of these banks plainly foreshadowed.

An additional shock was given to the community by the discovery of a number of defalcations, or embezzlements in several of the New York city banks. The Ocean Bank, the American Exchange, the National, the Market Bank, and one or two others less publicly spoken of, have suffered in this way. In most of these cases the final loss to the bank was very trifling, but the fact that the clerks could abstract funds varying in amount from \$25,000 to \$138,000, and escape detection for many months, produced as much effect upon the community as if the whole sums had actually been lost beyond recovery. A system of counter checks has already been established, but the vigilance will last in most cases, only until the excitement has died away. The reform, to be effectual, must go farther back. We cannot see how any merchant or banker, can expect his clerk to continue honest on a salary of either three or fifteen hundred dollars a year, if his expenses, according to the style in which he lives, must be twice that amount. Extravagance of dress, profusion of ornaments, and luxurious habits worthy only of a millionaire, characterize a large portion of "Young America," and until these habits are reformed, all other safeguards against embezzlement, will prove ineffectual. Some of these young men "run in debt" for that proportion of their expenses not provided for by their salary; but this is only changing the victim. Every young man who lives beyond his means must rob either his employer or his boarding-house keeper, or the poor artisan who clothes him. In either case the true preventive is to cut off the temptation by reducing the expenses to the income.

Speculation is now over, and so deeply buried beneath the "pressure," that its ghost cannot even be invoked through the most expert of its familiars. It will not, however, slumber long in its grave. It appeals to a craving of poor human nature never yet fully appeased. Quieted in one form, it issues forth in a fresh disguise, and its votaries will never be wanting while time shall last. In a former essay we ventured the remark, that the school of experience, at which even fools are said to learn, had been very much overrated, as the pupils seldom received the worth of their money, the cost of tuition was so very high. The moment the returning ease in the money market shall allow the community a little breathing time, we may look for a breaking out of the old fever with a fresh diagnosis!

How soon this returning ease may be expected, it is yet too soon to predict, but there are signs that the worst of the trouble is over. A trifling cause may, however, upset all calculation on this head, as the mercantile community stand much less strongly than they have. As far as we can see the prospect is encouraging. The rapid decline in the rates of foreign exchange, whether brought about by the superabundance of bills, or the scarcity of money, has had the effect to limit for awhile the exports of specie, so that the drain upon our seaboard banks has been almost wholly for inland use. The excitement at the West has been somewhat quieted, and the railroads will now all be crowded with produce going forward to market. Very little trouble has yet been felt at the South, and it seems doubtful if the storm which has swept with such desolate effect over all the rest of the Union, will do more than frown with its angry

clouds over the far Southern horizon. At Charleston the banks have been more extended, and some pecuniary troubles have been experienced. There is a very large crop of cotton to be delivered, and if the troubles in Europe continue, a portion of it must be sold at a very low rate; but any market for it, must leave the cotton-growing States in a comfortable position, as they are already unusually independent.

The railroads in progress throughout the country are suffering severely from the difficulty of negotiating their securities; but the finished roads have been doing a good business, and although their stocks have been selling at extremely low rates, their net income has never been so ample.

Movements are now making in some of the States to repeal the odious usury laws, and leave the price of money, like that of other commodities, to be regulated by the supply and demand. It is time this relic of the dark ages was blotted from every statute book; the lying, deceit, and fraud it has caused are palpable, while its advantages are altogether theoretical.

The New York banks have strengthened themselves a little in specie since the exports diminished, but their contraction has been going on during most of the month. Another of their number (the Empire City) has gone into liquidation. A number of those originated within the last two or three years have found the business less profitable than expected; while those which had only a nominal capital have been unable to go on. We annex a continuation of the weekly averages:—

WEEKLY AVERAGES OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Week ending	Capital.	Average amount of Loans and Discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
June 3....	\$47,454,400	91,916,710	10,281,969	9,381,714	71,702,290
June 10....	47,454,400	91,015,171	9,617,180	9,307,889	72,495,859
June 17....	47,454,400	90,063,573	10,013,157	9,144,284	71,959,195
June 24....	47,454,400	88,751,952	9,628,375	9,009,726	69,598,724
July 1....	47,657,400	88,608,491	11,130,800	9,068,253	71,457,984
July 8....	47,657,400	88,347,281	12,267,318	9,195,757	72,718,443
July 15....	47,657,400	90,437,004	15,074,093	8,837,681	75,227,333
July 22....	47,657,400	92,011,870	15,720,309	8,768,289	75,959,082
July 29....	47,657,400	92,588,579	15,386,864	8,756,777	74,790,656
August 5..	47,657,400	93,723,141	14,468,981	9,124,648	76,378,487
August 12..	47,657,400	93,435,057	13,522,023	8,917,179	74,626,389
August 19..	47,657,400	92,880,103	14,253,972	8,855,523	73,834,568
August 26..	47,657,400	91,447,075	14,395,072	8,811,369	73,731,179
Sept. 2....	47,657,400	91,391,188	14,714,618	8,934,632	72,856,727
Sept. 9....	47,657,400	91,528,244	14,446,317	8,968,707	73,831,235
Sept. 16....	47,657,400	91,639,782	14,484,259	8,820,609	74,467,701
Sept. 23....	47,657,400	92,095,911	12,932,386	8,802,623	72,938,453
Sept. 30....	47,657,400	92,102,013	12,042,244	8,712,136	71,795,423
Oct. 7....	47,657,400	91,380,525	10,630,517	8,918,492	70,285,610
Oct. 14....	47,657,400	88,618,936	11,130,377	8,534,188	69,141,597
Oct. 21....	47,657,400	87,092,810	10,320,163	8,497,556	65,627,886
Oct. 28....	47,657,400	84,709,236	9,826,763	8,131,933	62,792,637
Nov. 4....	47,657,400	83,369,101	10,004,686	8,233,126	62,229,011
Nov. 11....	48,163,400	82,717,052	10,472,538	8,197,444	61,662,387
Nov. 18....	48,163,400	82,191,974	10,801,532	7,877,684	62,181,007
Nov. 25....	48,163,400	81,699,705	10,200,983	7,718,158	60,334,199
Dec. 2....	48,163,400	81,734,113	10,517,993	7,852,525	63,010,695
Dec. 9....	48,163,400	80,593,637	10,483,501	7,480,833	60,278,866
Dec. 16....	48,163,400	80,946,664	11,471,841	7,261,111	61,367,098

The banks of the State of New York have completed their quarterly returns—commenced last September—since the date of our last, and we annex a summary of the total:—

CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK, SEPTEMBER 23, 1854.

ASSETS.				
	(New York city.	Other banks.	Individual bankers.	Total.
Discounts	\$82,623,951	\$56,083,600	\$3,042,796	\$141,750,347
Do. to directors	6,359,109	3,350,902	9,710,011
Other liabilities	293,421	980,935	1,274,356
Due by brokers	3,030,821	380,460	87,562	3,498,843
Real estate	3,567,619	1,522,746	83,215	5,173,591
Bonds and mortgages	243,921	6,668,917	878,624	7,791,462
Stocks	7,140,075	11,604,438	1,651,707	20,396,220
Promissory notes	99,835	83,392	183,227
Loss and expense	367,582	506,302	76,684	950,568
Overdrafts	125,316	359,548	49,495	534,359
Specie	12,558,010	1,021,967	72,057	13,652,034
Cash items	14,905,883	1,399,458	37,412	16,342,753
Bank notes	1,390,752	2,162,026	110,533	3,663,321
Suspended do.	498	1,013	897	2,408
Estimated value do.	498	507	721	1,726
Due by banks	4,621,049	7,422,603	390,220	12,433,872
Do. on credit	13,514	158,393	171,807
By suspended banks	4,587	37,818	11	42,416
Estimated value do.	4,587	37,818	5	42,416
By suspended banks on credit	59,990	59,990
Estimated value do.	59,990	59,990
Total	136,946,777	92,827,886	6,564,703	236,339,366
LIABILITIES.				
Capital	\$48,203,229	\$33,345,821	\$1,927,239	\$83,478,289
Profits	6,209,353	4,705,970	197,520	11,112,843
Circulation unregistered	156,485	153,538	310,023
Do. registered	7,787,810	20,493,593	2,383,551	30,664,954
Due State Treasurer	418,185	3,418,105	66,447	3,902,737
Deposits	57,402,013	22,010,839	1,654,844	81,066,696
Due others	279,515	1,343,521	96,296	1,719,332
Due banks	14,805,642	6,159,409	116,405	21,081,456
Due on credit	155,828	171,423	63,312	390,563
Due all others	1,528,640	1,029,410	59,090	2,617,140
Total	136,946,777	92,827,886	6,564,703	236,339,366

We also annex the comparative statement of the Boston banks:—

	Nov. 20.	Nov. 27.	Dec. 4.	Dec. 11.
Capital	\$32,136,400	\$32,140,350	\$32,152,525	\$32,179,175
Loans and discounts	51,025,471	50,550,733	49,877,633	49,395,182
Specie	2,858,565	2,647,934	2,261,805	2,319,733
Due from other banks	8,078,462	7,673,407	8,232,469	7,961,859
Due to other banks	5,728,519	5,728,519	5,899,293	5,890,227
Deposits	13,212,995	12,773,379	12,193,908	11,506,777
Circulation	8,512,439	8,170,316	8,346,458	8,072,769

The following is an abstract of the report of the Massachusetts banks, showing their condition on the 4th December, 1854:—

	37 City.	130 Country.	Total.
Capital	\$32,152,525	\$24,951,318	\$57,103,843
Net circulation	5,513,282	12,592,031	18,105,313
Deposits	12,133,908	5,522,258	17,656,161
Profits on hand	2,993,589	1,937,498	4,881,087
Total	52,793,304	45,053,100	97,846,404

RESOURCES.

	37 City.	130 County.	Total.
Notes, bills of exchange, &c.....	\$49,877,633	\$43,536,006	\$93,463,639
Specie.....	2,264,805	934,450	3,196,255
Real estate.....	653,866	532,644	1,186,510
Total.....	52,793,304	45,053,100	97,846,404

The following is the monthly statement of the New Orleans banks for November:—

CASH LIABILITIES.

	Circulation.	Deposits.	Other.	Total.
Citizens'.....	\$1,660,950	\$2,120,443	\$75,066	\$3,856,459
Canal.....	1,062,675	1,348,579	155,013	2,566,267
Louisiana.....	923,384	2,778,104	449,165	4,155,653
Louisiana State.....	1,052,810	3,107,780	410,235	4,570,825
Mechanics' and Traders'.....	124,790	918,119	28,327	1,071,236
New Orleans.....	451,435	594,822	64,251	1,110,508
Southern.....	271,785	252,775	740	525,300
Union.....	382,430	767,916	1,140,346
Total.....	\$5,935,259	\$11,888,538	\$1,182,797	\$19,006,594
Do. November, 1853.....	5,902,852	11,263,689	1,674,321	18,840,861

CASH ASSETS.

	Specie.	Loans.	Exchange.	Other.	Total.
Citizens'.....	\$1,652,261	\$3,389,913	\$334,288	\$.....	\$5,376,462
Canal.....	952,355	2,760,120	648,954	4,361,429
Louisiana.....	1,529,830	3,696,681	428,575	1,200,000	6,855,086
Louisiana State.....	1,583,693	3,507,570	9,514	578,000	5,678,377
Mechanics' & Traders'..	374,483	1,056,420	62,493	450,000	1,943,396
New Orleans.....	182,101	1,026,497	234,663	674,000	2,117,261
Southern.....	154,343	588,322	360,141	670,763	1,773,570
Union.....	258,648	877,585	331,437	610,000	2,077,670
Total.....	\$6,687,714	\$16,902,065	\$2,410,065	\$4,182,763	\$30,183,251
Do. November, 1853 .	7,128,390	15,563,328	1,451,054	2,466,000	26,608,772

OFFICIAL STATEMENT OF OHIO BANKS, NOVEMBER 1, 1854.—THE ENTIRE RESOURCES
FOOT UP AS FOLLOWS:—

Notes and bills discounted..	\$13,578,339	Checks & other cash items..	\$158,310
Specie.....	1,690,105	Bonds deposited with State	
Notes from other banks	905,555	Treasurer	2,466,247
Due from other bks. & bkrs.	1,025,954	Real estate & person'l prop.	298,223
Eastern deposits	1,725,858	Other resources.....	1,006,252
Total.....			\$22,854,619

LIABILITIES.

Capital stock.....	\$6,037,970	Surplus fund.....	\$729,538
Circulation.....	8,074,132	Bills payable & time drafts.	140,162
Safety fund stock.....	1,128,611	Discount interest	72,421
Due to banks and bankers..	949,727	Dividends unpaid	160,254
Due depositors.....	5,290,312	Other liabilities.....	271,490
Total.....			\$22,854,619

The lately suspended banks are not included in the above report.

The Canal Bank of Cleveland has stopped payment, as well on its notes as on deposits, and has been placed in the hands of a receiver. The City Bank of Columbus has suspended payment on its deposits, but is redeeming its notes on

presentation. The Savings Bank of Cincinnati, after retiring the principal portion of its circulation, has gone into insolvency, leaving in the hands of the State Auditor a sufficient deposit of Ohio stocks to secure the redemption of the balance of its outstanding notes. Of the Miami Valley Bank, at Dayton, nothing is officially known beyond the fact that the amount of Ohio stocks on deposit to its credit is equal to the entire amount of its circulation.

Most of the gold received at New York during the month of November and the last half of October was deposited at the New York Assay Office, and there made into fine bars for export. The receipts at the Philadelphia Mint include only such parcels, as were sent (after receipt at the Assay Office) over to the Mint for coinage, and also such straggling parcels as found their way to the Mint without any previous assay. The total deposited at the New York Assay Office from the date of its organization, October 10th, to the 1st of December, was as follows:—

DEPOSITS OF BULLION AT THE ASSAY OFFICE, NEW YORK.

	Oct. 10 to 31.	Nov. 1 to 30.	Total to Dec.
Gold.....	\$1,599,380 02	\$2,954,849 67	\$4,554,229 79
Silver.....	5,419 16	1,762 83	7,181 49
Do. parted from gold	12,255 31	22,118 93	34,374 24
	<hr/> \$1,617,054 49	<hr/> \$2,978,730 93	<hr/> \$4,595,785 42

The following will show the deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans Mints for the month of November:—

DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS.

DEPOSITS FOR NOVEMBER.

	Gold from California.	Total Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Philadelphia Mint.....	\$825,200	\$829,350	\$405,900	\$1,235,250
New Orleans Mint.....	65,716	65,716	44,328	110,044
Total deposits.....	<hr/> \$890,916	<hr/> \$895,066	<hr/> \$450,228	<hr/> \$1,345,294

GOLD COINAGE.

	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles
Eagles
Three-dollar pieces.....	22,740	\$68,220
Half eagles.....	16,410	82,050
Quarter eagles.....	13,000	\$82,500	47,078	117,695
Dollars.....	261,333	261,333
Bars
Total gold coinage	<hr/> 13,000	<hr/> \$82,500	<hr/> 357,561	<hr/> \$529,298

SILVER COINAGE.

Dollars.....
Half dollars	250,000	\$125,000	240,000	\$120,000
Quarter dollars	300,000	75,000	80,000	20,000
Dimes.....	500,000	50,000	1,200,000	120,000
Half dimes.....	500,000	25,000
Three-cent pieces	100,000	3,000
Total silver coinage.....	<hr/> 1,050,000	<hr/> \$250,000	<hr/> 2,120,000	<hr/> \$288,000

COPPER COINAGE.

Cents.....
Total coinage.....	1,063,000	\$282,500	2,467,561	\$817,298

We annex a comparative statement of the deposits of gold at Philadelphia for the first eleven months in each of the last three years:—

	1852.	1853.	1854.
January.....	\$4,161,600	\$4,962,097	\$4,215,579
February.....	3,010,222	3,548,523	2,514,000
March.....	3,892,156	7,533,752	3,982,000
April.....	3,091,037	4,851,321	3,379,000
May.....	4,335,578	4,365,638	3,506,000
June.....	6,639,474	4,545,179	4,000,000
July.....	4,193,880	3,505,331	3,940,000
August.....	2,671,536	4,518,902	2,940,000
September.....	4,253,687	3,027,805	2,660,000
October.....	4,140,069	4,472,606	600,000
November.....	7,279,942	3,650,051	829,350
Total.....	\$47,719,261	\$48,980,705	\$32,655,929

The report of the Secretary of the Treasury upon the finances of the country has been sent to Congress, but the official tables of imports and exports have not been published. We learn, however, that the total foreign imports into the United States for the year ending June 30, 1854, amounted to \$304,562,381, and the exports to foreign ports \$253,390,870 of domestic, and \$24,850,194 of foreign produce, making a total of \$278,241,064. Included in the exports are \$38,000,000 specie, mostly of domestic production. This is by far the largest amount of foreign Commerce ever chronicled in this country. Although the nominal excess of imports is \$26,321,317, yet the earnings of freights, and the profit upon our exports are more than sufficient to make up the difference. The receipts for cash duties at nearly all of the ports show a decline in comparison with the corresponding period of last year; at New York the decline in November was nearly \$900,000.

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
First quarter.....	\$9,295,257 30	\$7,617,887 72	\$11,125,500 47	\$10,873,699 31
Second quarter....	7,357,408 30	6,632,425 16	10,041,829 03	8,864,261 45
Third quarter.....	9,402,997 30	10,281,190 03	13,613,105 14	12,699,868 05
In October.....	1,958,516 17	2,392,109 57	2,705,694 33	2,402,115 10
In November.....	1,488,740 09	2,051,476 35	2,642,985 92	1,751,023 45
Total.....	\$29,502,919 16	\$28,975,088 83	\$40,129,114 89	\$36,590,967 36

The following statement will show the amount received for duties at the Custom House in Philadelphia for the month of November, and for the first ten months of the year, compared with the corresponding periods in the two previous years:—

	1854.	1853.	1852.
November.....	\$215,615 30	\$312,046 05	\$206,052 30
January to October.....	4,051,955 86	4,355,909 45	3,425,695 95
Total.....	\$4,267,571 16	\$4,667,955 50	\$3,631,748 25

The total imports have of course declined. The amount landed at New York in November was \$3,953,085 less than for the same month of last year, \$104,225

less than for the same month of 1852, but \$2,660,350 greater than for the same month of 1851, as will appear from the following comparison:—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK DURING THE MONTH OF NOVEMBER.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	\$4,899,085	\$7,167,851	\$9,232,007	\$5,746,538
Entered for warehousing	938,056	596,068	2,864,350	2,183,366
Free goods	415,838	891,382	334,223	662,817
Specie and bullion.....	218,473	80,766	154,342	39,121

Total entered at the port	\$5,971,452	\$8,736,067	\$12,584,927	\$8,631,842
Withdrawn from warehouse.....	1,377,100	1,047,972	1,333,068	1,431,775

The receipts of free goods have increased, and the stock in warehouse has been reduced by drawing for shipments to other ports. This leaves the total imports at that port since January 1st, \$8,113,734 less than for the corresponding eleven months of last year, but \$52,504,895 more than for the same time in 1852, and \$17,418,372 more than for the first eleven months of 1851:—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR ELEVEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	\$100,615,950	\$98,248,742	\$144,007,797	\$126,155,443
Entered for warehousing	12,852,967	7,730,384	22,122,462	28,963,725
Free goods	9,144,170	11,276,195	11,721,200	14,867,342
Specie and bullion.....	2,024,167	2,295,410	2,317,901	2,069,116

Total entered at the port.....	124,637,254	119,550,731	180,169,360	172,055,626
Withdrawn from warehouse..	12,781,070	14,511,468	14,204,069	21,006,567

The receipts of free goods have increased, it will be seen, about \$3,150,000, while the warehousing business has been much larger than usual. The imports of dry goods have fallen off far more than the receipts of general merchandise, the total in November being less than half the amount for the same time of the previous year. Thus, the dry goods landed at New York in November were \$2,563,705 less than for November, 1853, \$661,197 less than for November, 1852, and only \$352,791 larger than for November, 1851, as will appear from the following comparison:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF NOVEMBER.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$285,308	\$633,451	\$1,012,335	\$320,267
Manufactures of cotton.....	264,439	370,677	654,878	204,445
Manufactures of silk.....	347,862	969,417	1,178,326	590,757
Manufactures of flax.....	321,715	459,882	512,680	234,050
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	138,685	203,849	217,279	253,712
Total	\$1,358,009	\$2,637,276	\$3,575,498	\$1,603,231

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$52,948	\$43,836	\$116,941	\$167,102
Manufactures of cotton.....	34,911	13,960	54,897	52,618
Manufactures of silk.....	184,560	64,497	123,471	102,254
Manufactures of flax.....	25,160	20,179	58,892	68,166
Miscellaneous dry goods	56,083	24,391	57,842	28,881

Total withdrawn.....	\$353,662	\$166,863	\$412,043	\$418,971
Add entered for consumption....	1,358,009	2,637,276	3,575,498	1,603,231

Total thrown upon the market.	\$1,711,671	\$2,804,139	\$3,987,541	\$2,022,202
-------------------------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	\$87,820	\$58,778	\$341,764	\$68,292
Manufactures of cotton	81,037	58,056	376,111	135,308
Manufactures of silk	172,607	76,603	316,871	196,999
Manufactures of flax	101,206	9,378	146,025	59,069
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	66,542	41,423	27,448	157,203
Total.....	\$509,212	\$243,933	\$1,208,219	\$616,781
Add entered for consumption.....	1,358,009	2,637,276	3,575,498	1,603,231

Total entered at the port \$1,867,221 \$2,881,209 \$4,783,717 \$2,220,012

It will be seen that the falling off extends through all classes of fabrics, but is comparatively greatest in woolens. The total imports of dry goods at New York since January 1st are \$8,994,365 less than for the first eleven months of 1853, but \$22,206,574 greater than for the same time in 1852, and \$19,129,668 greater than for the corresponding period of 1851:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR ELEVEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	\$12,668,004	\$13,790,139	\$24,001,971	\$17,529,561
Manufactures of cotton	8,941,972	8,664,810	13,377,261	12,763,639
Manufactures of silk	20,863,773	19,306,978	30,100,877	23,989,516
Manufactures of flax.....	5,756,705	5,654,618	7,347,873	6,155,876
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	3,421,639	3,848,048	4,967,817	5,185,977
Total.....	\$51,652,093	\$51,264,593	\$79,795,799	\$65,624,568

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

Manufactures of wool	\$1,819,885	\$1,561,075	\$2,029,660	\$4,046,154
Manufactures of cotton	1,320,439	1,333,761	986,857	2,504,123
Manufactures of silk.....	1,554,921	1,844,230	1,340,906	2,882,257
Manufactures of flax	586,304	765,305	289,646	839,642
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	436,268	353,499	357,539	379,256
Total	\$5,717,817	\$5,857,870	\$5,004,608	\$10,651,432
Add entered for consumption....	51,652,093	51,264,593	79,795,799	65,624,568

Total thrown on the market. \$57,369,910 \$57,122,463 \$84,800,407 \$76,276,000

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

Manufactures of wool	\$2,155,437	\$1,243,850	\$2,752,402	\$4,668,179
Manufactures of cotton	1,513,372	860,665	1,780,460	2,559,442
Manufactures of silk	2,461,450	1,909,168	1,931,540	3,554,952
Manufactures of flax.....	819,971	337,741	599,848	1,135,658
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	498,298	407,698	364,605	687,490
Total.....	\$7,448,528	\$4,759,122	\$7,423,855	\$12,605,721
Add entered for consumption....	51,652,093	51,264,593	79,795,799	65,624,568

Total entered at the port ... \$59,100,621 \$56,023,715 \$87,224,654 \$78,230,289

The exports at New York show a comparative decline, owing to the scarcity of produce, but the total at other ports, and especially the Southern ports, must show an increase. We annex a statement for November at New York, which shows a total decline (exclusive of specie) of \$3,177,617, as compared with the same month of last year, but an increase of \$1,001,903, as compared with the same time of 1852, and of \$2,188,804, as compared with November, 1851:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF NOVEMBER.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce.....	\$2,451,511	\$3,529,447	\$7,489,937	\$4,660,007
Foreign merchandise (free).....	62,368	27,634	48,088	323,389
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	397,597	541,296	739,872	116,884
Specie	5,033,996	809,813	3,855,775	3,588,001
Total exports	\$7,945,472	\$4,908,190	\$12,133,672	\$8,638,281
Total, exclusive of specie	2,911,476	4,098,377	8,277,897	5,100,280

The exports of specie for the month have been less than for the same month of last year, and far less than for November, 1851. The total exports from New York since January 1st, (exclusive of specie,) are \$1,132,917 less than for the first eleven months of last year, but \$15,452,526 larger than the same time in 1852, and \$17,334,017 larger than for the same time of 1851:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR ELEVEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce.....	\$36,652,339	\$37,768,933	\$53,374,056	\$52,557,868
Foreign merchandise (free).....	699,895	827,146	1,265,771	1,561,963
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	3,672,624	4,310,270	4,851,965	4,239,044
Specie.....	38,074,974	23,915,950	23,621,505	37,101,142
Total exports	\$79,099,832	\$66,822,299	\$83,113,297	\$95,460,017
Total, exclusive of specie	41,024,858	42,906,349	59,491,792	58,358,875

The total shipments of cotton from all the ports are about 100,000 bales more since September 1st than during the same time of last year, making an increase of about \$5,000,000. The exports of produce from New York have been large during the month of September, but the total of breadstuffs have not equaled that shipped last year. In *provisions* the increase is very large. The following will show the comparative shipments of some leading articles of domestic produce from New York to foreign ports from January 1st to December 17th:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, FROM JANUARY 1ST TO DECEMBER 17TH.

	1853.	1854.		1853.	1854.
Ashes—pots.....bbls	10,483	9,104	Naval stores.....bbls	442,489	518,949
pearls	796	1,876	Oils—whale.....galls	258,267	314,161
Beeswax.....lbs	196,246	203,815	sperm	913,615	679,537
<i>Breadstuffs—</i>			lard	52,649	33,137
Wheat flour . . bbls	2,013,164	975,730	linseed	20,150	7,150
Rye flour	4,066	9,454			
Corn meal.....	42,230	67,418	<i>Provisions—</i>		
Wheatbush	6,714,871	1,654,934	Pork.....bbls	69,537	105,154
Rye	17,421	315,158	Beef.....	48,832	86,405
Oats	63,290	63,859	Cut meats....lbs	7,968,280	16,741,153
Barley.....	100	72	Butter	1,866,443	1,953,850
Corn	943,935	4,064,245	Cheese.....	7,013,097	10,301,693
Candles—mold..boxes	45,990	49,155	Lard.....	6,601,537	14,488,285
sperm.....	5,285	10,316	Rice	trcs	24,349
Coal.....tons	31,440	21,863	Tallow.....	lbs	2,879,034
Cotton.....bales	369,183	289,436	Tobacco, crude..pkgs		28,854
Hay.....	4,720	3,636	Do., manufactured.lbs	5,556,464	3,446,944
Hops.....	825	11,117	Whalebone.....	3,008,407	1,708,203

The above presents some very curious features. The high price of wheat and wheat flour have diminished the exports of these articles very materially, the shipments of flour being less than one-half, and that of wheat less than one-quarter the total for the corresponding period of last year. On the other hand, the shipments of Indian corn have largely increased, the total being over four times greater than for the same period of 1853. The shipments of cotton from this port have been less, but the shipments of provisions have largely increased, and the quantity of pork, beef, and bacon now going forward to Liverpool and London is worthy of especial attention. The exports of tallow are also much larger. The foreign demand for wheat and wheat flour for export can now only be met by shipments from Southern ports, the water communications further north being ice-bound, and the railroads only taking to the Atlantic coast about what will be needed for consumption there. When the spring opens the canals and the lakes, a stream of breadstuffs will set toward the old world in uninterrupted flow. The ground sown is the most extensive ever under culture within our limits, and if there be no blight on our harvest, we can feed the nations of Europe, so far as they may need beyond their own production. Previous to the coming forward of the new crop, the stores of old, which have accumulated at the various points of inland shipment, will be sent forward, and that which was hoarded during the fall, when a high price was offered for it in vain, will be sold far below the rates now current. If our cotton crop shall also be in good demand, we shall rapidly recover from the expansion consequent upon the multiplication of railroad and other projects, and the past distress be forgotten in the renewed prosperity of the country.

NEW YORK COTTON MARKET FOR MONTH ENDING DECEMBER 22.

PREPARED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY UHLHORN & FREDERICKSON, BROKERS, NEW YORK.

Since our last monthly report prices have declined fully one cent per pound on all grades. Even this reduction fails to impart any degree of confidence in the present range of prices, and the feeling is pretty general amongst holders and buyers, that under the circumstances, there is no safety unless at figures materially lower than those quoted at the close of this article. The causes of the depression noted above are many, amongst which we may class the uncertainty of the duration of the present war in the Crimea, and the probability that its continuance may embroil the other continental powers. This, together with the high price of grain—the scarcity of money—the want of confidence—and the well-admitted fact that a large crop has been secured, leaves no other alternative for the conclusions arrived at. The foreign advices at hand during the past month give us no hopes for any improvement in prices during the pendency of the Eastern difficulties; while from Manchester the complaints are both loud and numerous from the spinners, and a resort to short time as a general thing was anticipated. Our own manufacturers, if they complain less, are no better employed, and to the rapid decline in the price of cotton during the past two months is owing the fact that so few of our mills have stopped running. Our own spinners have bought less than usual during the past month—the principal business being for shipment.

The supply during the week ending November 24th was excessive, and holders extremely anxious to realize. The sales did not exceed 3,500 bales, at very irregular rates, the market closing heavy at the following quotations:—

PRICES ADOPTED NOVEMBER 24TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7½	7½	7½	7½
Middling.....	9	9½	9½	9½
Middling fair.....	9½	10	10½	10½
Fair.....	10	10½	10½	11

The week following the transactions were increased to 5,000 bales, but at a decline of fully $\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$ cents per pound. The disposition to sell on the part of holders was manifested by some purchases made at a much greater reduction, and the week closed with much irregularity in prices, at about the annexed rates:—

PRICES ADOPTED DECEMBER 1ST FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7	7	7	7½
Middling.....	8½	8½	8½	9½
Middling fair.....	9½	9½	9½	10
Fair.....	9½	9½	10	10½

For the week ending December 8th the sales were estimated at 4,500 bales, the sales being principally of lots in *transit* or to arrive; the rates paid were very irregular, and the decline for the week on all grades was $\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$ cents per pound. The annexed quotations, in the unsettled state of the market, must be considered for the most part nominal:—

PRICES ADOPTED DECEMBER 8TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7	7	7	7½
Middling.....	8½	8½	8½	8½
Middling fair.....	9	9½	9½	9½
Fair.....

The sales for the week ending December 15th were 4,000 bales, the largest portion being for export. Prices paid showed a still further decline for the week of $\frac{1}{4}$ cent per pound. Even this reduction failed to impart any confidence in the article, and a lower range of figures is anticipated. Owing to the monetary difficulties throughout the country, and the low stage of the Southern rivers, the receipts at the ports are somewhat retarded, and in consequence our imports are extremely small. Our own spinners for the past month have purchased sparingly. The quotations annexed represent the market at the close:—

PRICES ADOPTED DECEMBER 15TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....
Middling.....	8½	8½	8½	8½
Middling fair.....	8½	8½	9½	9½
Fair.....	9	9½	9½	10

For the week closing at date the sales do not exceed 3,500 bales. Our stock is now much reduced, and is not over 12,000 bales. Prices have further declined, and the following quotations are based on actual sales. There is but little offering, and holders generally are firm; the demand, however, is extremely moderate, and not much change in rates is apprehended until there is an accumulation of stock:—

PRICES ADOPTED DECEMBER 22D FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	6½	6½	6½	6½
Middling.....	7½	7½	8½	8½
Middling fair.....	8½	8½	9½	9½
Fair.....	9	9½	9½	10

CROP.—Crop estimates attract but little attention—the favorite figures are, however, 3,150,000 a 3,250,000 bales. Either amount is sufficient, in the present deranged state of foreign affairs, to warrant low prices.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COTTON—ITS VALUE, GROWTH, AND EXPORT.

The following table, compiled from the United States Treasury Report, will show the export of cotton to different countries for the fiscal year 1853, with its value:—

EXPORTS OF COTTON IN POUNDS FOR THE LAST THREE FISCAL YEARS ENDING JUNE 30,
AND ITS DESTINATION, ALSO ITS VALUE FOR THE YEAR 1853.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	Value.
Russia.....lbs.	10,098,448	10,475,168	21,286,563	\$2,254,345
Prussia.....	523,288	468,300	19,800
Sweden and Norway....	5,160,974	5,939,025	6,099,517	613,857
Denmark.....	37,042	435,169	39,597
Hanse Towns.....	16,716,571	22,138,228	22,671,782	2,259,909
Holland.....	5,508,670	10,259,042	7,038,994	668,132
Belgium.....	26,335,018	27,157,890	15,494,442	1,476,104
England.....	649,795,190	735,861,583	737,953,370	71,525,663
Scotland.....	19,943,449	15,758,801	30,643,128	2,997,547
Ireland.....	906,483	953,396
Gibraltar.....	158,653	123,803	89,960	9,423
British East Indies.....	45,715	5,375
Canada.....	22,623	14,133	6,287	538
British N. Am. colonies ..	902	2,449	6,008	646
France on the Atlantic ..	137,059,259	176,629,086	184,525,459	18,818,635
France on the Mediter'n..	2,105,312	9,585,184	4,701,454	429,441
Spain on the Atlantic ...	607,340	1,922,207	1,639,726	172,036
Spain on the Mediter'n...	33,665,285	27,379,721	35,211,316	3,760,059
Cuba.....	113,572	294,653	196,392	40,374
Other Spanish West Ind..	40,532
Portugal.....	98,235	87,691	9,742
Madeira.....	18,620	1,888
Italy generally.....	8,184,306	12,365,445	14,789,864	1,420,530
Sicily.....	1,069,095	96,219
Sardinia.....	2,136,100	5,568,823	1,629,025	156,422
Trieste, and other Austrian ports on the Adriatic..	17,309,154	23,948,434	17,968,642	1,863,821
Mexico.....	845,960	6,760,091	7,463,851	813,501
Chili.....	18,000	30,000	3,000
Total.....	927,237,089	1,093,230,639	1,111,570,370	\$109,456,404

RECAPITULATION.

	Sea Island.	Other descrip'tns.	Total.	Value.
Total in 1851.....lbs.	8,299,656	918,937,433	927,237,089	\$112,315,317
Total in 1852.....	11,738,075	1,081,492,564	1,093,230,639	87,657,732
Total in 1853.....	11,165,165	1,100,505,205	1,111,570,370	109,456,404

It appears there was none exported to Ireland and the Spanish West Indies the past year. The value of the amount exported to Ireland in 1851 was \$113,096, and \$73,312 in 1852. The value to the Spanish West Indies in 1851 was \$4,863; and to Prussia, same year, \$20,820. The destination of Sea Island cotton was as follows:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Sweden and Norway.....lbs.	7,993
England.....	6,403,553	9,478,465	8,855,890
Scotland.....	299,019	292,417	400,326
France on the Atlantic....	1,597,084	1,429,268	1,900,456
France on the Mediterranean.....	587,925
Total.....	8,299,656	11,738,075	11,165,165

STATISTICS OF THE TRADE AND COMMERCE OF MOBILE IN 1853-54.

We compile from the *Merchants' and Planters' Price Current* of Mobile, the sub-joined statistics of the Trade and Commerce of that city for the commercial year ending August 31st, 1854:—

EXPORT OF COTTON TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM MOBILE FOR THE YEAR ENDING AUG. 31, 1854.

	Bales.	Pounds.	Value.
To Great Britain—In American vessels....	79,227	40,188,014	\$3,398,619
" In British vessels.....	152,003	76,443,727	6,433,532
Total to Great Britain.	231,230	116,631,741	\$9,832,151
To France—In American vessels.....	76,752	38,884,047	3,493,133
" In French vessels.....
Total to France.....	76,752	38,884,047	\$3,493,133
To Spain—In American vessels.....	100	52,016	5,028
" In Spanish vessels.....	8,438	3,987,920	417,950
Total to Spain.....	8,538	4,039,936	\$422,978
To Russia.....
Holland.....	2,960	1,498,308	131,972
Belgium.....	6,087	3,106,086	278,500
Hamburg.....	3,894	1,967,202	185,749
Sardinia.....	1,200	611,728	53,484
Sweden.....	1,525	770,761	66,026
Mexico.....	268	188,750	9,600
Trieste.....	4,509	2,288,642	202,759
Total to other foreign ports.....	20,443	10,381,477	\$928,090
Grand total, 1854.....	336,963	169,937,201	\$14,676,352
Grand total, 1853.....	345,930	177,156,863	16,198,442

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM THE PORT OF MOBILE FOR THE LAST FIVE YEARS.

Ports.	1853-4.	1852-3.	1851-2.	1850-1.	1849-50.
Liverpool.....	227,462	220,615	297,235	238,405	151,667
Hull.....	3,218	1,800
Glasgow and Greenock	3,768	11,952	7,147	8,615	10,552
Cowes, Cork, etc.....	1,507	2,742
Total Great Britain ...	231,230	237,292	306,002	249,897	162,219
Havre.....	76,752	85,490	93,200	43,864	39,968
Bordeaux.....
Marseilles.....	1,760	2,343	694
Rouen, Nantes, etc....	574	2,210	902
Total to France.....	76,752	87,824	97,753	45,460	39,968
Amsterdam.....	1,134
Rotterdam.....	2,960	2,635	800
Antwerp.....	6,087	1,000	4,182	1,203
Ghent.....	1,354
Genoa and Trieste....	5,709	3,457	8,478	3,896	2,922
Hamburg and Bremen..	3,894	880
Cuba and Barcelona....	8,538	4,921	5,571	13,949	8,057
Mexico and Stockholm.	268	3,959	4,216	3,721	998
St. Petersburg.....	3,873	2,009	1,500
Other ports.....	1,525	1,560
Tot. other foreign ports.	28,981	20,814	27,091	26,420	11,977

	1853-4.	1852-3.	1851-2.	1850-1.	1849-50.
New York.....	35,419	45,398	35,173	26,702	41,175
Boston	43,198	49,187	43,279	34,229	26,378
Providence.....	23,406	25,183	21,035	5,918	14,602
Philadelphia	5,047	9,768	4,335	2,751	2,380
Baltimore.....	3,921	2,826	2,976	2,077	3,190
New Orleans.....	64,806	62,309	37,006	42,524	40,016
Other ports	2,871	601	250	1,131
Total coastwise.....	178,668	195,271	143,804	114,451	128,872
Total	515,631	541,201	574,650	436,228	343,036

RECAPITULATION.

Great Britain.....	231,230	237,292	306,002	249,897	162,219
France.....	76,752	87,824	97,753	45,460	39,968
Other foreign ports....	28,981	20,814	27,091	26,420	11,977
Total foreign.....	336,963	345,930	430,846	321,777	214,164
United States ports..	178,668	195,271	143,804	114,451	128,872
Total	515,631	541,201	574,650	436,228	343,046

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE IMPORTS AND STOCKS OF THE FOLLOWING STAPLE ARTICLES.

	Imports.		Stocks.	
	1854.	1853.	1854.	1853.
Bagging, assorted	23,450	22,327	3,013	3,788
Bail rope.....	24,186	24,107	3,374	7,602
Bacon	17,791	13,227	454	273
Coffee	21,907	34,503	1,476	3,932
Candles.....	1,530	882
Flour.....	62,986	64,444	1,843	1,285
Grain, corn.....	186,238	92,104	7,434	9,655
" oats.....	55,870	48,395	4,677	1,153
Hay	26,075	22,830	3,492	2,994
Lard	16,483	22,380	358	520
Lime	24,963	21,252	1,550	3,113
Molasses.....	35,850	19,681	2,156	1,236
Potatoes, Irish.....	23,641	21,344	89	174
Pork	13,975	15,841	530	403
Rice	2,496	1,399	224	43
Sugar	8,970	8,352	605	673
Salt.....	168,732	123,266	28,179	14,388
Whiskey.....	25,980	21,754	2,033	3,498

The imports of most articles of provisions and some of the groceries are short of the actual receipts—the manifest of cargoes frequently failing to specify the articles.

ABSTRACT OF THE VALUE OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO MOBILE IN 1853, AND THE FIRST SIX MONTHS IN 1854.

	1853.		
	Value.	Total.	Duty.
First quarter—Imports dutiable.....	\$242,262		\$70,722 36
" " free	144,573		
		\$386,835	
Second quarter—Imports dutiable.....	165,867		46,741 25
" " free		
		165,867	
Third quarter—Imports dutiable	745		183 20
" " free.....	...		
		745	
Fourth quarter—Imports dutiable.....	139,171		43,718 04
" " free.....	93,141		
		232,312	
Total for year 1853.....		\$785,759	\$161,364 85

1854.			
	Value.	Total.	Duty.
First quarter—Imports dutiable.....	\$118,981		\$30,188 50
“ “ free	185,531		
		\$304,512	
Second quarter—Imports dutiable.....	232,802		70,581 51
“ “ free	25,282		
		258,084	
Total for first six months in 1854	\$562,596		\$100,770 01
Total imports for year ending June 30, 1854.....			\$795,653 00
Total duties for year ending June 30, 1854.....			144,671 25
Total imports for year ending June 30, 1853.....			695,388 00
Total duties for year ending June 30, 1853.....			154,594 56

ABSTRACT OF THE VALUE OF FOREIGN EXPORTS FOR THE YEAR 1853, AND FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1854.

1853.			
First quarter—In American vessels ..	\$3,710,138		
“ “ In foreign vessels.....	3,613,879		
			\$7,324,017
Second quarter—In American vessels.....	2,661,663		
“ “ In foreign vessels.....	2,175,165		
			4,836,828
Third quarter—In American vessels.....	627,785		
“ “ In foreign vessels	220,206		
			847,991
Fourth quarter—In American vessels.....	1,032,897		
“ “ In foreign vessels.....	200,345		
			1,233,242
Total foreign exports for 1853.....			\$14,242,078

1854.			
First quarter—In American vessels	\$4,031,188		
“ “ In foreign vessels.....	4,314,813		
			8,346,001
Second quarter—In American vessels	1,563,680		
“ “ In foreign vessels.....	1,920,698		
			3,484,378

Total foreign exports for six months of 1854..... \$11,830,379

The receipts of cotton at the port of Mobile for the year ending 31st of August, 1854, were by Alabama River 254,990; by Tombigbee River, 214,445; by Black Warrior River, 62,191; by wagons, railroad, &c., 7,058—total bales, as above, 538,864. The total in warehouses and on ship-board, not cleared on 31st of August, 1854, was 29,278 bales.

EXPORTS OF MASTS, SPARS, HEWN TIMBER, ETC., FROM PORT OF MOBILE, FROM SEPTEMBER, 1853, TO AUGUST 31, 1854.

Where exported.	No. of masts and spars.	Hewn timber. Tons.	Deck planks. Feet.	Value of masts, spars, &c.
Cherbourg.....	149	341	81,800	\$1,842
Toulon.....	400	353	46,545	3,968
Rocheport.....	171	118	53,000	606
Marseilles.....	38	109	165
Barcelona.....	40	410	5,000	...
Cadiz.....	112	45	850
Cuba.....	180	2,993
Total.....	1,088	1,376	186,345	\$10,424

EXPORT OF SAWED LUMBER FROM PORT OF MOBILE, YEAR ENDING AUGUST 31, 1854.

Where exported to.	Feet.	Where exported to.	Feet.
Havana.....	2,653,523	New York.....	212,338
Vera Cruz.....	196,018	Philadelphia.....	1,128,984
Cardenas, etc.....	81,178	Boston.....	101,288
Tampico, etc.....	719,359	Baltimore.....	585,621
Matanzas.....	426,734	Key West, etc.....	495,017
Barcelona, etc.....	37,470	Franklin, (Louisiana,) etc...	187,000
Neuvas.....	149,383	Centerville, (Louisiana,)...	104,200
St. Jago de Cuba.....		New Orleans.....	47,000
		Providence, etc.....	16,000
Total West Indies, etc.....	4,263,665	Pensacola.....	
Indianola.....	808,621	Total coastwise.....	2,877,448
Point Isabel, etc.....	1,528,343		
Galveston, etc.....	2,677,437	Grand total.....	12,606,805
Matagorda.....	175,507		
Brazos Santiago.....	285,784		
Total Texan ports.....	5,465,692		

STATISTICS OF THE COFFEE TRADE.

The import and export of coffee into and from the Union for 1852 and 1853, was as follows, in detail:—

	1852.		1853.	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Holland.....	2,508,988	\$252,323	747,978	\$86,873
Dutch East Indies.....	10,208,910	742,252	3,959,659	326,675
Dutch West Indies.....	1,976,286	144,051	41,600	3,276
Dutch Guiana.....	35,257	2,842	8,422	600
British East Indies.....	2,074,729	159,251	2,012,637	101,002
British West Indies.....	2,291,740	175,727	1,538,532	129,936
Cuba.....	2,846,091	240,435	2,058,997	158,160
Spanish West Indies.....	125,034	9,350	208,741	18,120
Hayti.....	18,446,584	1,454,365	19,747,817	1,590,612
Mexico.....	135,848	16,600	23,915	1,924
Central America.....	240,321	20,096		
New Grenada.....	54,783	4,067	20,505	1,462
Venezuela.....	13,996,027	1,115,944	13,732,829	1,128,783
Brazil.....	138,156,506	10,064,740	153,338,464	11,844,414
Africa.....	554,289	52,712	861,741	84,629
Other.....	52,692	4,170		
Total.....	193,698,556	\$14,458,925	199,089,823	\$15,525,954
Net import.....	180,531,509	13,358,419		

The import of Brazil has become the leading dependence for the Union, while Cuban has become nominal. In 1840 the imports of St. Domingo were one-third the receipts from Cuba; they are now eightfold. The leading descriptions have varied as follows:—

IMPORTS OF COFFEE IN THE UNITED STATES.

	Brazil.	Cuba.	St. Domingo.	Java.	Total lbs.
1843.....	49,515,666	16,611,287	10,811,288	1,638,301	92,295,660
1844.....	95,291,484	18,628,875	20,781,461	8,740,841	158,332,111
1845.....	78,553,616	1,157,794	13,090,359	3,925,716	108,153,369
1846.....	97,353,697	2,326,497	12,734,753	2,819,411	132,812,734
1847.....	94,916,629	6,673,479	19,085,277	17,819,345	156,716,575
1848.....	110,927,284	2,258,710	16,990,976	3,037,377	150,559,138
1849.....	122,581,123	4,000,986	13,384,474	4,208,078	165,334,700
1850.....	90,319,511	3,740,803	19,440,985	5,146,961	144,986,895
1851.....	107,578,257	3,099,084	13,205,766	2,423,968	152,453,617
1852.....	138,156,506	2,046,091	18,446,584	10,203,910	193,698,556
1853.....	153,338,464	2,058,997	19,747,817	3,959,659	199,089,823

The import for the year 1854 is considerably less than for the year 1853, the decline in Rio being full 20 per cent, and the stock in the United States is 148,000 bags, against 230,000 bags in 1853. The Brazilian production has been as follows:—

PRODUCTION OF COFFEE IN THE BRAZILS.

	Bags.	Arrobas.	Pounds.
1820.....	95,700	478,500	15,312,000
1825.....	132,710	912,550	29,261,600
1830.....	391,785	1,958,925	62,685,600
1835.....	627,165	3,135,825	100,346,450
1840.....	1,063,805	5,319,005	170,208,800
1850-1.....	1,897,231	9,486,155	303,556,960
1851-2.....	1,825,559	9,487,735	301,049,440
1853.....	1,968,625	9,843,125	343,780,000
1854.....	1,599,928	7,999,740	245,988,480

BRITISH CONSUMPTION AND DUTIES ON TOBACCO.

The quantity of tobacco consumed in Great Britain is less now, *per capita*, than twenty or thirty years since. In 1801, there were 16,904,000 pounds, the duty on which was £1,209,000, at 1s. 7d. (about 38 cents) per pound. In 1852, the amount consumed was 28,558,000 pounds, the duty on which at 3s. per pound, (72 cents,) was £4,560,000, or above twenty-two millions of dollars.

Years.	Lbs. consumed.	Gross duty.	Duty per pound, American.	Duty per pound, Spanish.
1801.....	16,904,000	£1,209,000	1s. 7d.	4s. 6d.
1805.....	16,815,000	1,391,000	1 9	4 11
1810.....	20,929,000	2,043,000	2 2½	4 1
1815.....	17,955,000	2,504,000	2 2	4 11
1820.....	15,716,000	3,117,000	4	6
1825.....	18,761,000	3,258,000	3	5
1830.....	19,293,000	2,924,000	3	3
1835.....	21,116,000	3,354,000	2 9	3
1840.....	23,000,000	3,616,000	3	3
1845.....	26,101,000	4,245,000	3	3
1850.....	27,734,000	4,430,000	3	3
1851.....	28,062,000	4,486,000	3	3
1852.....	28,558,000	4,560,000	3	3

The consumption, *per capita*, was from 1800 to 1810, 1.04; from 1811 to 1820, .92; from 1820 to 1830, .79; from 1830 to 1840, .85; and from 1840 to 1850, .93=100 of a pound.

BRITISH CONSUMPTION, ETC., AND DUTIES ON TEA AND COFFEE.

Of tea the quantity consumed was, in 1801, 23,737,000 lbs.; and in 1852, 54,725,000 lbs., realizing at the last date, the enormous sum of £5,984,000 in duties. In the same period the consumption of coffee has increased from 750,800 lbs. to 35,044,000 lbs., as will appear annexed:—

	Pounds tea consumed.	Duty paid.	Pounds coffee consumed.	Duty paid.
1801.....	23,737,000	£1,423,000	750,800	£106,000
1805.....	24,293,000	3,336,000	1,201,700	120,000
1810.....	22,015,000	3,647,000	5,308,000	175,000
1815.....	25,840,000	4,058,000	6,117,000	258,000
1820.....	25,602,000	3,527,000	7,103,000	340,000
1825.....	28,719,000	4,031,000	11,082,000	307,000
1830.....	30,046,000	3,387,000	22,669,000	579,000
1835.....	36,574,000	3,589,000	23,295,000	652,000
1840.....	52,252,000	3,473,000	28,723,000	922,000
1845.....	44,193,000	4,830,000	34,293,000	717,000
1850.....	51,178,000	5,556,000	31,226,000	571,000
1851.....	53,965,000	5,900,000	32,564,000	444,000
1852.....	54,725,000	5,984,000	35,044,000	437,000

We enumerate the changes that have taken place in the duties levied upon tea and coffee :—

In 1801 and 1802—the tea duty was 20 to 50 per cent, *ad valorem*.

1803 to 1806—tea duty 65 to 95 per cent, *ad valorem*.

1806 to 1819—tea duty 96 per cent, *ad valorem*.

1819 to 1834—tea duty 96 to 100 per cent, *ad valorem*.

1834 to 1835—East India Company's monopoly of the tea trade ended. Tea duty, 1s. 6d. to 3s. per lb.

1836 to 1839—tea duty 2s. 1d. per lb.

1840 to 1850—tea duty 2s. 1d. per lb.

During the years 1801 and 1802 the coffee duty was 1s. 6d. to 2s. 7d. per lb.

1803—coffee duty reduced to 1s. 6d. to 3s. 4d. per lb.

1804—coffee duty 1s. 7d. to 2s. per lb.

1805—coffee duty 1s. 7½d. to 2s. 4d. per lb.

1808—coffee duty 1s. 7½d. per lb.

1809 to 1814—coffee duty 7d. to 10d. per lb.

1814 to 1818—coffee duty 7½d. to 11½d. per lb.

1818 to 1825—coffee duty, 1s. British Plantation; 1s. 6d. East India; 2s. 6d. Foreign, per lb.

1825 to 1831—coffee duty, 6d. British Plantation; 9d. East India; 1s. 3d. Foreign, per lb.

1831 to 1842—coffee duty, 6d. British Plantation and East India; 9d. Foreign, per lb.

1842 to 1851—coffee duty, 4d. British Plantation and East India; 8d. Foreign per lb.

1844 to 1850—coffee duty, 4d. British Plantation and East India; 6d. Foreign per lb.

1801 to 1810 " " " 45s. 6d. per cwt.

1811 to 1820 " " " 50s. 6d. "

1821 to 1830 " " " 31s. 10d. "

1831 to 1840 " " " 34s. 1d. "

1844 to 1850 " " " 31s. 7d. "

BRITISH IMPORTS OF COTTON, AND EXPORTS OF COTTON AND LINEN GOODS.

The most marked change in British commercial affairs is the rapid increase in exports of cotton goods, viz.:—in 1801, only £7,050,000, and in 1852, £29,956,000. This besides the supply of goods to their own large population. The importation of cotton and its export in manufactured shape at various dates is shown as annexed :—

Years.	Pounds of cotton imported.	Value of cotton goods exported.	Linen goods ex- ported.
1801.....	54,203,000	£7,050,000	£1,009,000
1805.....	58,878,000	9,534,000
1810.....	123,701,000	18,951,000
1815.....	92,525,000	20,620,000	1,400,000
1820.....	152,829,000	16,516,000	1,653,000
1825.....	292,546,000	18,359,000	2,130,000
1830.....	269,616,000	19,428,000	1,926,000
1835.....	333,043,000	22,128,000	3,208,000
1840.....	528,142,000	24,668,000	4,128,000
1845.....	721,979,000	26,119,000	4,104,000
1850.....	664,696,000	28,252,000	4,845,000
1851.....	757,379,000	30,088,000	5,067,000
1852.....	928,243,000	29,956,000	5,867,000

COMMERCE OF SHANGHAE IN 1853.

The Hong Kong China Mail of Aug. 17, 1854, publishes in a supplement an official statement from the office of the superintendent of British Trade in China, a detailed statement of the import and export trade of the port of Shanghai, during the year 1853. The value of imports in 127 British vessels was £1,045,141. In 57 American do. £663,459; in 23 vessels under 21 other European, and 2 under Siamese flags £134,634, making a total of £1,843,234 estimated at 6s. 6d. exchange per dollar. The

export trade to foreign countries in the same period, amounted to £3,250,203 in 126 British vessels; £1,900,021 in 52 American, and \$230,320 in other foreign vessels. Total, £5,380,540. The principal shipments in British ships consisted of raw silk 33,247 bales, value £2,033,214; silk piece goods 289 bales, £28,127; tea, 24,743,600 lbs., £1,155,750; nankeens, 456 piculs, £4,500. The amount of tea shipped in American vessels was 8,624,817 lbs., valued at £420,439; in other ships, 2,539,129 lbs., £127,826.

EXPORT OF RAGS FROM GREAT BRITAIN TO AMERICA.

The subjoined table shows the quantity and value of the rags exported to America from Great Britain:—

	1850.		1851.	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
England.....	1,337,410	\$27,357	1,789,494	\$44,138
Scotland	155,041	2,860	567,652	8,804
Ireland	79,241	1,418	168,489	1,862
	1852.		1853.	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
England.....	1,617,359	39,066	2,666,005	74,175
Scotland	431,619	14,000	1,373,481	77,086

After the publication of these figures, who can wonder that paper in the old country is scarce, and substitutes for rags in demand?

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

LIABILITY OF INSURERS FOR GOODS STOLEN AT FIRES.

The following decision of Mr. Justice Mitchell, of the Supreme Court, is believed to involve a new and highly important question in relation to the liability of insurers for goods stolen at fires.

We are informed that the case was originally submitted to arbitrators, (of whom Judge Kent was chairman,) who decided that the insurers were not liable for goods stolen at a fire. The complaint in this case was filed to set aside their award.

The cause was argued by Jonathan Miller, Esq., for the plaintiff, and E. W. Stoughton, Esq., for the defendants, and has attracted much attention among underwriters:—

SUPREME COURT.

William S. Wood vs. The Brooklyn Fire Insurance Company, The Hudson River Fire Insurance Company, of New York, The Atlantic Fire Insurance Company, of Brooklyn, The Stuyvesant Insurance Company, The Broadway Insurance Company, The Astor Fire Insurance Company, of the city of New York, and The Washington Insurance Company, in the city of New York.

OPINION—MITCHELL, J.

The defendants demur to the complaint.

The complaint shows that the plaintiff had his stock of jewelry, &c., in the store, 367 Broadway, insured by the defendants in various sums against loss or damage by fire, and that the defendants promised to make good to the plaintiff all such loss or damages, not exceeding the sum insured, as should happen by fire to the property during one year from the 6th of September, 1851. There is no averment of there being any other clause in the policy except a clause permitting other insurances to be effected without notice to the respective defendants until required. The complaint alleges that a fire occurred within that year, in the building insured, in the part thereof occupied by the plaintiff, and in which his goods were placed, and that the loss which happened by the said fire to the property exceeded \$10,000; that the plaintiff furnished to the defendants notice of his loss and due preliminary proofs; that thereupon differences arose between him and the defendants as to the amount of loss sustained by him on said articles, by reason of the fire, and that he and they, in order to a full and

final adjustment of said matters of difference, by writing, under their seals, &c., submitted the said matters in difference to the judgment of William Kent, Junius T. Stagg, and Hann C. Beach, arbitrators, agreed upon by the parties; that the arbitrators, or two of them, should make their award in writing, which "should be a full and final adjustment of all the said matters in difference;" that the parties appeared before the arbitrators by their counsel, and produced proofs; that the plaintiff showed that the value of his goods thus insured was \$18,670 60, at and immediately before the fire, and that the value of such of them as could be found after the fire was only \$10,372 62, thus showing a total loss of goods insured of the value of \$8,296 98; that it also appeared that the plaintiff had sustained an injury on the goods found after the fire to the extent of \$2,291 50, making in all the loss on the goods \$10,558 48.

The complaint then alleges that "some of the evidence so produced before the arbitrators tended to prove that the whole or a part of the said goods so insured, which were in the said building at the time the fire broke out, and which could not be found after the fire, of the value of \$8,296 98, and which were so lost to the plaintiff, had been stolen during the continuance of the fire by persons unknown, and that the counsel for the defendants insisted before the arbitrators that the plaintiff was not entitled to recover, under the policies, any amount for goods so stolen during the continuance of the fire; that the arbitrators made their award on the 21st August, 1853, and thereby found the amount of loss sustained by the plaintiff on the articles insured, by reason of the said fire, was \$3,500, and that the defendants were bound to pay that amount to the plaintiff; and that, by a certificate signed by William Kent and Junius T. Stagg, two of the arbitrators, dated 21st August, 1853, they certified that they believed that the evidence submitted to them tended to prove that a part of the goods insured had been stolen or abstracted at the time of and during the fire, and also the value of said goods stolen or abstracted; but that the arbitrators, in making their award, did not take into consideration such evidence, but held and adjudged the law to be, that the loss sustained by such abstraction or stealing was not covered by the policies, and made up their award on the principle of that decision in regard to the law. The plaintiff, therefore, demands that the award be set aside, and for further relief.

The complaint is drawn with great skill and care, so that it may be inferred, that nothing is omitted which could benefit the plaintiff's case and could be stated with truth—even when the allegations are "liberally construed, with a view to substantial justice between the parties." Code, 159, (136.)

Thus, although marine policies issue expressly against "robbers," so including assailing thieves, and also, in this country, against "thieves," and so including losses by stealing, effected whether by persons connected with the navigation of the vessel or by others—(1 Hill, 25. American Insurance Company vs. Bryan)—yet it must be inferred, that in this policy there was no insurance against losses either by thieves or by robbers—but only against losses "*happening by fire.*"

So, also, when it is alleged that the evidence tended to prove that goods to the value of \$2,296 98 were lost to the plaintiff, and had been stolen during the continuance of the fire, and that two of the arbitrators certified that the evidence tended to prove that a part of the goods "had been stolen or abstracted at the time of or during the fire," it is to be inferred that the evidence only tended to prove these facts, and did not fully establish them, and that it only tended to prove that the goods had been stolen during the continuance of the fire, and not in consequence of the fire.

A single circumstance, in a long chain of evidence, may tend to prove the guilt of a party, and, therefore, when he is questioned as a witness, he may refuse to answer in relation to it; yet, by itself, it may not be sufficient to create a suspicion against him. If this were all the evidence of the stealing or abstraction that was presented to the arbitrators, they were bound not to "take it into their consideration;" for although it tended to prove something, it in fact proved nothing.

But if the evidence established a stealing, it only showed that the stealing took place "at the time and during the fire." That is all that the two arbitrators certify to, and their certificate is, at best, like a special verdict. If their certificate is to be used to overturn their awards, it must be not by a conjecture as to what the certificate meant, nor by the court finding conclusions of fact, which the arbitrators refrained (perhaps intentionally) from finding—but only because the facts found are necessarily inconsistent with the awards. The stealing may have happened at the time of and during the fire, and yet not have been in consequence of the fire. If it had been in consequence of the fire, the pleader would have so averred, and the arbitrators would

have so found, for if they had not meant to be as favorable to the plaintiff as they justly could, they would not have given him any certificate.

Thieves may have laid their plans before the fire to rob the store, and may have been able to effect it whether there had been a fire or not; they may have entered the store and stolen the jewelry by the ordinary exercise of their art, without there being at the moment any advantage to them from the circumstance of the fire then prevailing; the jewelry may have been removed to a place of safety and stolen from there during the fire; and it would still be true, that that part of the goods insured, and which were in the store at the time that the fire broke out, and which could not be found after the fire, had been stolen during the fire; still, in none of these cases could the loss be said to have "happened by the fire," or to have been caused by it, or to have been the consequence of it.

The arbitrators found that the loss sustained "by reason of the fire" was \$3,500. This must have included all the loss sustained in consequence of the fire; for "by reason of" and "in consequence of" are terms of equal extent. The arbitrators thus, by their award and certificate taken together, do find that any loss beyond the \$3,500, although happening during the continuance of the fire, was not by reason of and in consequence of the fire.

If such is the correct understanding of the award and certificate, the award was correct in law. A loss which is not in consequence of fire, although it happen during a fire, cannot be considered as covered by a policy which insures only against a loss "happening by fire."

The complaint, therefore, does not raise the question whether a court of equity will interfere with an award made by arbitrators contrary to law, when they have intended to decide according to law, and have in a separate certificate stated the facts on which they decided. There are cases which seem to sanction the interference of the court, in such cases, at least, where the reference is by rule of court. The principle now generally recognized is, that the court cannot interfere with the decision of arbitrators because they have decided against law, where mixed questions of law and fact are submitted to them. The exception which it is attempted to establish is, that the court may interfere if the arbitrators state the point of law decided by them—the court seizing on this statement as a reference to it of the question of law. But it is an established principle as to awards, that the arbitrators are themselves to decide the questions submitted to them. If, then, a mixed question of law and of fact be submitted to them to decide, how have they any right to submit the question of law to the court, any more than a question of fact to a jury? and if they have no right to refer either, then if they do refer to the court the question of law, their award would be void, whether they decided the law correctly or not, as it would be no award on their part; and then, in all cases where the matter was referred to the court, there would be no question whether the award was according to law or not, but the award should always be declared null, as not being the award of the arbitrators, whom and whom alone the parties had chosen to make "a full and final adjustment of all their aid matters in difference."

If the parties do not submit the question of law to the arbitrators, but reserve that, then the arbitrators would have no jurisdiction to pass on it, whether they stated the grounds of their decision or not. But if the parties do submit that question to the arbitrators, and not to the court, it defeats the peaceable object of an arbitration, if the court drag into litigation a point submitted to and decided by the arbitrators, merely because the arbitrators have stated what their decision was. When this question shall fairly present itself, it will be worthy of consideration, whether the court should interfere even in this excepted case, if no actual misconduct be imputable to the arbitrators. Judgment should be for the defendants.

OF PROPERTY INSURED WHEN SEIZED BY A FOREIGN GOVERNMENT.

An action of Assumpsit to recover a sum of money received by the defendant, was brought in the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, March term, 1854, by the Mercantile Marine Insurance Company, *vs.* William W. Corcoran, under an award made by the Commissioners to adjust claims of American citizens against Mexico, for spoliation upon American property.

On or about the 25th of July, 1833, the plaintiffs executed a policy of insurance on property on board the ship Henry Thompson, of which ship B. B. Williams was the master, payable in case of loss to J. W. Lord. The property insured was seized by

the Mexican government, and Lord abandoned it to the plaintiffs, and claimed for a total loss. The plaintiffs accepted the abandonment, and paid to Lord the amount insured, on the 27th of May, 1836.

The defendant claimed under assignments from Williams and Lord. Other facts appear in the opinion of the Court, which was delivered by Dewey, J.

The authorities cited by the plaintiffs fully establish the principles contended for by them, that the right to the property insured, to the extent of the sum insured, passed to the insurers on the abandonment.

The law transfers the property abandoned to them without any formal assignment. It is also settled that insurers, who thus become interested in such property by the abandonment, have the right of the original owner to compensation for damages against a foreign power under a treaty. *Comegys vs. Vasse*, 1 Pet., 193. This was the original position of the plaintiffs, and an arrangement having been subsequently effected between our country and Mexico, they may enforce this claim, unless there are substantial objections to it. The plaintiffs in 1836, having this claim, took no measures to recover it until 1850. In the meantime measures had been taken to ascertain who were claimants for compensation against Mexico, and the amount of their claims had become matters of public notoriety.

A commission was established for that purpose, as early as 1839, to ascertain who were the claimants, and the amount of their claims. Before this commission the plaintiffs presented no claims, as against Lord & Williams, or against the Mexican government. On the contrary, they allowed Lord & Williams, who had no interest in the property abandoned, to present a claim, which was acted on—and a report made in their favor. This was before the public, and the claim was allowed to stand without objection by the plaintiffs. After this report was made by an American commission, all Lord & Williams' interest was assigned by various assignments to the defendant, for a valuable consideration. The commission for the distribution of the sums to be paid out of money due the Mexican government commenced its labors in 1849. In 1850 or 1851, his claim was allowed to Mr. Corcoran. Here again the plaintiffs omitted to interpose, after the commissioners had reported, as they might have done before the District Court of the District of Columbia. This omission was urged as an entire bar to the present action. But that was not a remedy which excluded all other remedies; it was merely a remedy allowed by interfering and sequestering the money awarded. We mention it as part of the plaintiffs' course of conduct.

The question then arises, whether the defendant is to be deprived of the fruit of his own labors for securing the allowance of the claim. The plaintiffs had done nothing; the claim would have been entirely lost if the defendant, by his own vigilance, had not obtained this award, and the plaintiffs would have got as little as if they now fail in their claim against him. There was great laches on their part. They allowed Lord & Williams to go on, and to have all the *prima facie* evidence of ownership, which resulted in the commissioners' report in their favor before referred to. On that report Lord & Williams made a sale, and all the right and interest they had came to Corcoran. On the sitting of the late commission, of which we presume public notice must have been given, the plaintiffs forbore to assert any right to the claim, thus apparently abandoning any right they might have exercised. While their right was thus apparently abandoned, Corcoran has, by pursuing the claim at his own costs and charges, obtained its allowance, and we think that under the circumstances, that allowance must inure to his benefit. The neglect of the plaintiffs is so great as to present an entire omission of duty, and so strong that neither justice nor equity allows them to reap the fruits of exertions made by one claiming under a *bona fide* assignment. It is said that the defendant purchased a stale demand, as he bought in 1847, while the first commission was in 1839. How much more does this remark apply to the plaintiffs, who did nothing from 1836 to 1850. There is, moreover, no privity between the parties in this suit, except that arising from the general principle that a party who holds money that he ought not in equity and good conscience to retain, is liable to the owner, and which does not seem to us applicable here.

Verdict set aside; judgment for the defendant.

HOW THE PAID FIRE DEPARTMENT WORKS IN CINCINNATI.

The Cincinnati *Atlas* has compiled from the books of Mr. L. Gulick, Clerk of the Fire Department in Cincinnati, the following statement, showing the amount of losses

by fires during the six months ending September 30th, of the years 1853 and 1854, and also of the amount of insurance on the property destroyed:—

	Loss.	Insurance.		Loss.	Insurance.
1853—April.....	\$50,936	\$39,071	1854—April.....	\$3,045	\$760
May.....	45,486	6,836	May.....	200	200
June	137,945	99,460	June.....	910	410
July.....	48,015	15,845	July.....	25,285	17,375
August.....	2,640	300	August.....	19,696	13,798
September ..	28,520	14,968	September..	47,626	44,913
Total..	\$312,542	\$176,480	Total..	\$96,762	\$77,456

From this statement it appears that the loss by fire in six months of 1854 was \$216,780, or almost 70 per cent less than in the same period in the year before; while the losses of the insurance companies in the six months of 1854 were \$99,024, or more than 50 per cent less than in the same period of 1853.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

STATISTICAL HISTORY OF CHEAP POSTAGE IN ENGLAND.

Recent Parliamentary papers furnish a full exhibit of the workings of the cheap postage system in England. The penny postage system was adopted in the year 1839, (the year in which the *Merchants' Magazine* was commenced,) and went into operation in 1840. The new order of things has gone on from year to year, until now we find that the letters mailed have increased 500 per cent between 1839 and 1853, viz.:—being 82,000,000 in 1839, and 410,000,000 in 1853, and the increase is still going on. As a matter of record, we republish the returns of letters carried, net revenue, cost of management, &c., for each year:—

Years.	Estimated number of letters.	Net revenue after paying cost of management.	Cost of management.	Payments to railways, included in cost of management.	Money orders issued. Number.	Amount.
1839.....	82,470,596	£1,633,764	£756,999	£52,860	188,921	£313,129
1840.....	168,768,334	500,789	858,677	52,362	587,797	960,975
1841.....	196,500,191	561,249	938,168	96,190	1,552,845	3,127,507
1842.....	208,434,450	600,641	977,504	78,464	2,111,980	4,337,177
1843.....	220,450,306	640,217	980,650	97,526	2,501,523	5,112,840
1844.....	242,091,684	719,957	985,110	92,493	2,806,803	5,695,395
1845.....	271,410,789	761,982	1,125,594	181,117	3,176,126	6,413,362
1846.....	299,586,762	825,112	1,188,745	110,450	3,515,079	7,071,050
1847.....	322,146,243	984,496	1,196,520	121,859	4,031,185	7,903,177
1848.....	328,830,184	740,429	1,403,250	318,631	4,203,651	8,151,294
1849.....	337,399,199	840,787	1,324,562	230,079	4,248,891	8,152,643
1850.....	347,069,071	803,898	1,460,785	400,964	4,439,713	8,494,498
1851.....	360,647,187	1,118,004	1,304,163	242,848	4,661,025	8,880,420
1852.....	379,501,490	1,090,419	1,313,907	327,933	4,947,825	9,438,277
1853.....	410,817,489	1,173,727	1,400,679	374,859	5,215,290	9,916,195

Coupled with these accounts is a statement of the expense of the Money-order Office for 1853. The total cost for the United Kingdom was £72,725; and, as the amount of commission received was £86,847, there was a profit in this department of £14,149. But for an excess of £770 in the expenditure of the Irish offices over the receipts, the surplus would have been £14,919; as the gain for England and Wales was £14,404, and for Scotland, £517. Last year the total profit was only £10,689, and five years ago it was but £322. In England and Wales the annual issue of money-orders, in proportion to the population, is now at the rate of about one to every four persons, and for the United Kingdom it is about one to every five persons.

THE MINT OF FRANCE.

The following account of the Mint of France, its coinage, &c., is derived from a letter, dated Paris, June 5th, 1845. It was mislaid, or the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* should have had the information it contains at an earlier day.

The Mint is a large building of three stories, situated on the bank of the Seine, and from its length makes a striking figure, when viewed from the opposite side of the river. Perhaps the arrangements of this institution are farther behind the age than any other similar one in Europe or America. Those who are acquainted with the workshops of the Mint in Philadelphia, pronounce them infinitely superior. Not only are these dark and dirty, but everything is inconvenient. It is almost impossible to believe, from the appearance of the utensils, that such fine coin as is current in the kingdom could be possibly produced, though it must be admitted to be still inferior in beauty to that of England, the United States, and several other countries. All the machines are worked by hand. From the foundry, where the bars are cut, I passed to the room where they are flattened and punched—all by hand labor. The punching requires a force which an unaccustomed arm is unable to command. In a succession of apartments the coin is baked, weighed, whitened, and struck. This concluding operation is executed now by means of a steam-engine, placed here within six months. The various steps are explained in a satisfactory manner by the workmen, who oddly enough complain, without a single exception, that it is very warm here—French way of asking money!

This government are extremely slow in introducing steam into their works. They contend that every steam-engine makes paupers of all workmen whose places it supplies; and, acting on this opinion, their work is consequently inferior to that of other nations. The Pope of Rome, taking a similar view, has recently announced that no railways shall be constructed in his dominions as long as he shall live. The whole nation living on the money which drops from the pockets of strangers, his Holiness may be right; since few more perhaps would visit if the facilities for traveling were greater, while those who went would obviously spend less. Churchmen in that country, as well as our own, have a kind of *second sight* where money is concerned. Besides, the Vatican has never been fond of new discoveries at any period, as Galileo found; and it ought not to be wondered at if the courteous old gentleman of the keys and triple crown is a little nervous about the introduction of the exciting locomotive among his uneasy lieges. He knows it is a Protestant invention, as much as the terrible *Alliance*; and, like another sensible and prudent Laocoon, may exclaim, *Quicquid id est, timeo Danaos et dona ferentes*. And why should not the fiery horse, which has burnt the woods and barns along Long Island Sound, also scatter light and perhaps flame among the dwellers on the banks of the Tiber?

In another part of the building is the *Cabinet of Coins*—an immense collection. These are arranged in glass cases round the room, with statistics connected with them. The oldest is a French coin of Childebert I., of the date of 511. There are English and Spanish coins in great profusion. In a small case are shown the coins of America—those of the United States are very poor. With these there are a great number of medals; one of Charlemagne is a unique specimen of the time. Those of the Louises, Napoleon, and Louis Philippe are almost innumerable. A case of some of the most common and recent ones is marked with the prices at which they can be purchased. Many cases contain specimens of the medals and tokens of various societies and commercial companies. In an adjoining gallery are the dies, from which the coins and medals have been struck since the reign of Charles VIII., and specimens of the various metals used in coining, in their native state, as well as in their pure and refined form. The whole collection is richly worthy of a visit, and to the antiquarian must be a delightful treat, for it contains many relics, extremely valuable and rare.

Old coins are very easily obtained in France, abounding in the shops of the gatherers of old rubbish. Among them a few days ago was found a two-sous piece, coined by Napoleon, but never circulated, a few only having been given to the ministers of the cabinet. It consists of a bit of silver, encircled by a ring of copper, raised above the interior to save it from wearing away. Its price was fixed at five dollars. The admirable collection of Roman coins belonging to the government is deposited in the *Bibliothèque Royale*.

To this edifice the jeweler, silver and goldsmiths, bring all their manufactures to be stamped. This is not performed unless they possess a certain fineness—the gold must be of eighteen carats; 10 per cent is charged on the value of the gold. This proceeding insures the purchaser against deception in the quality of the wares.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF WEALTH IN OHIO.

Mr. MANSFIELD, the able editor of the *Railroad Record*, published at Cincinnati, has, from the "Abstract of the Valuation of Real Property," as returned by the Assessors for 1853, and reported to the Legislature of that State, condensed the leading facts, so that they can be readily understood, and gives the interesting result in a clear and comprehensive form. The value of Real Estate in the years 1853 as compared with 1846, is as follows:—

1853.	1846.	Increase.
\$581,675,538	\$324,495,772	\$257,179,766
which makes in the seven years, 80 per cent increase.		
The total value of the property of the State is ascertained by adding to the above the value of personal property of all descriptions. These are returned in the last Auditor's Report, so that we find the aggregate value of property thus:—		
Value of real estate in 1853		\$581,675,538
Value of domestic animals in 1853.....		53,680,231
Moneys and credits in 1852		41,878,524
Merchants' stock in 1852.....		18,152,774
Manufacturers' stock.....		5,556,493
Investments in stocks		7,754,630
Non-enumerated articles.....		14,375,634
Miscellaneous.....		3,576,782
Banks, railroads, and other companies		30,731,157
Total.....		\$759,381,366

The increased valuation of personal property this year will probably make the aggregate *eight hundred millions!* The valuations at different periods were:—

1846.	1850.	1853.
\$403,627,677	\$439,876,340	\$759,381,366

This is an increase in seven years of about 90 per cent.

By an examination of the actual sales of land in Ohio, this is found to be very near accurate. The assessments are about 15 per cent *below* the ordinary sales, which is an allowance made for *cash* values, which is assumed as the standard in the assessments.

As examples of specific valuation and increase, we give below the counties of Hamilton, Montgomery, Cuyahoga, Muskingum, and Franklin:—

	1846.	1853.
Hamilton	\$39,551,323	\$85,971,910
Montgomery.....	7,413,712	17,012,499
Franklin	8,283,540	19,985,508
Muskingum.....	9,597,835	11,465,045
Cuyahoga	7,744,219	28,697,749

Hamilton has increased 120 per cent; Montgomery, 133; Franklin, 140; Muskingum, 20, and Cuyahoga, 300 per cent—places (with the exception of Muskingum) *where railroads have most influence.*

We now turn to the culture and production of the State. The division of lands, cultivated and uncultivated, in the State, in acres, is:—

Arable land.	Meadow and pasture.	Wood and uncultivated.	Total.
7,775,900	3,662,000	13,373,763	24,810,763

Of the arable land, 3,400,000 acres are in wheat and corn; the residue in oats, barley, rye, potatoes, orchards, fallow, &c.

The three crops of wheat in the last years were, in bushels:—

1850	35,000,000	Corn in 1850.....	63,000,000
1851	25,309,225	" 1851.....	61,171,282
1852	22,962,774	" 1852.....	58,165,517
Total	83,272,999	Total	182,336,899
Av. annual production.	27,457,666	Av. annual production.	60,778,336

The wheat crop is a very *variable* one; but the corn is almost uniform in the results. There has not been a variation of 15 per cent between any two corn crops in many years, while in the wheat crop the variation has amounted to more than 100 per cent. For example, take the wheat crops of 1849 and 1850, thus the wheat crops in 1849 were 16,000,000 bush.; 1850, 35,000,000 bush. Increase near 120 per cent.

The five largest wheat-producing counties of the State are Stark, Wayne, Muskingum, Licking, and Coshocton. The production of these counties in 1850 and 1852 was, in bushels, as follows:—

	1850.	1852.
Stark	1,071,177	956,913
Wayne.....	1,020,000	885,510
Muskingum	1,003,096	801,957
Licking.....	849,116	507,326
Coshocton.....	862,809	597,310
Five counties.....	4,906,198	3,749,016

These five counties raise about one-seventh of the whole crop of wheat. The crop of 1852 was smaller than that of 1850, but their proportion was rather larger. The five largest corn-growing counties are Ross, Pickaway, Butler, Franklin, and Warren. Their production for 1850 and 1852 were, in bushels, as follows:—

	1850.	1852.
Ross.....	2,918,958	2,971,500
Pickaway	2,627,727	3,039,418
Butler	2,646,353	2,446,123
Franklin	1,984,927	2,346,295
Warren	1,757,409	1,556,165
Five counties	11,939,376	12,359,501

This is full one-fifth of the whole crop of corn.

The increase of domestic animals is very rapid, particularly of sheep, where wool is now a profitable article. The number of sheep and hogs in the State are as follows: sheep, 4,068,029; hogs, 2,430,465. The largest sheep counties are:—

Licking.....	162,470
Knox.....	105,307
Medina.....	111,888
Harrison.....	118,768
Wayne.....	108,517
Five counties.....	606,950

The value of wool in these five counties is full \$600,000. In the counties of Wayne and Licking the value of wool is \$270,000; of wheat, \$1,200,000; of corn, \$500,000; making in these two counties *two millions of dollars* for these three crops. Besides these, there are a large number of cattle, orchards, and many minor productions.

The exhibition of these two counties, (Wayne and Licking,) entirely in the interior of the State, on neither river or lake, and remote from city influences, will give some idea of the results of Ohio farming. The assessments of the property of the State are based on such results, and are not in the least exaggerated. There is scarcely a farm in the State valued as high as it will bring in open market.

FINANCIAL CONDITION OF BRAZIL.

An authoritative document has been issued in London, giving a clear and most satisfactory account of the debt and finances of Brazil, from which we give the following extracts. This document, after showing that while in the period between 1836 and 1848, the deficiencies in the Brazilian finances altogether amounted to reis 40,550,675,000, in the last five years there has been an aggregate surplus of reis 18,096,766,000, or \$9,835,885, proceeds thus:—

The revenues of Brazil have, in the course of seventeen years, risen from reis 12,265,562,000, their lowest point, to reis 35,646,407,000, or \$19,110,220, the highest,

about which sum it seems reasonable to estimate them for succeeding years. The expenditure, too, has also increased, but its augmentation has been at a lower rate; and since 1844, when the Rio Grande du Sul was pacified, the rate of increase in the expenditure generally represents the fuller and better organization of the public services, the growth of an efficient squadron, principally steam, and public improvements of various sorts. And it may be mentioned, as an additional proof of the sound state into which the finances of Brazil have been brought, that the whole expenditure of the Argentine war of 1851, not less than \$5,000,000, was provided for out of revenue, and without any increase of taxation. The starting-point of revenue increase is, it will be observed, the year 1845-6. The commercial treaty with England, which restricted the rate of import duties to 15 per cent *ad valorem*, expired in 1844. On the 12th of August, 1844, a new tariff of customs duties was issued. Under its influence, combined with growing prosperity at home, greater liberality of treatment of its produce in foreign markets, and with an improved collection of the customs revenue, a state of chronic deficit has been changed into one of large surplus. In the full swing of material progress, the government of Brazil has availed itself of financial prosperity to establish naval and to extend and perfect judicial means for the effectual suppression of the slave-trade; has reduced the tonnage duty on shipping by two-thirds; has lowered some oppressive internal taxes, and abolished others; has already made some partial modifications of her customs tariff; and, encouraged by a growing increase of revenue, notwithstanding these reductions, the imperial government is now engaged in preparing a measure for a general diminution of import, and the entire repeal of export duties.

Moreover, it is to be remarked that the figures given above are the imperial revenues of Brazil only, viz. those over which the general government and legislature have control. In addition, however, each of the twenty provinces that compose the empire has a separate revenue, raised by the authority of its provincial assembly, and spent on its own local objects, amounting altogether for the twenty provinces, to about one-third of the imperial revenue. Consequently the demands on the imperial or general revenue of Brazil are much fewer than they are in countries where a centralized system of government prevails, and public expenditure of every sort comes out of the resources of the State treasury. The deficiencies of former years have been funded, and form the greater part of the internal debt of Brazil. The total funded debt of the empire now stands thus:—

FOREIGN DEBT.

Balance of 5 per cent loan of 1824.....	£3,197,800	
“ “ “ 1829.....	597,500	
“ “ “ 1839.....	391,200	
“ “ “ 1843.....	673,200	
Balance of 4½ per cent loan of 1852.....	1,035,100	
		£5,894,800
Internal debt		6,467,490
Total debt of Brazil.....		£12,362,290

Of the internal debt, bonds to the extent of £750,000 are in the hands of British subjects, and of £200,000 in those of other aliens, an amount which exhibits the confidence placed by foreigners, connected with or engaged in the business affairs of the country, in its resources and good faith. Another £1,000,000 of this debt is held by the hospitals and other charitable and religious foundations of the empire, and the remainder by private Brazilian subjects.

Thus, then, it appears that with a revenue of nearly £4,000,000 a year, chargeable only with the expenses of the imperial government, and not with those of the provincial administrations, the Brazilian debt, foreign and domestic, does not much exceed three years' revenue. This is a proportion between the means and liabilities such as few States can exhibit; and while the debt is annually diminishing, the revenue is yearly increasing. Nor can a debt of £12,300,000 be deemed a serious charge on an independent country containing 8,000,000 of inhabitants, having an almost illimitable area of the most varied and productive soil in the world, with ports, by means of steam, only a month's distance from London and Paris, possessed of a stable government, and of an easily working parliamentary system of legislation, free at last from elements of internal disorder, embarrassed by no foreign alliances or family engagements, and enjoying, under a free-trade policy, a commercial prosperity which has no parallel out of the United States and England.

GUARDS AGAINST FRAUD IN BANKS.

The late disclosure of rogueries among the bank tellers has induced several banks of New York to adopt checks calculated to make such frauds more difficult. The Mechanics' Bank of that city has issued a circular to the other banks detailing the plan adopted by that institution. The plan is as follows:—

1. A clerk shall be appointed, whose duty it shall be to stand at the desk of the Paying Teller, and receive from him every check, note, or acceptance, that is presented for certification.

2. He shall keep a book, ruled similar to the Receiving Teller's credit book, (with columns for each book-keeper,) and shall immediately enter to the debit of every person whose check shall be certified, the name and amount.

3. After making the entry, he shall stamp them across the face, and hand them back to the Paying Teller.

4. The Paying Teller shall, on receiving them from the clerk, write his surname within the circle of the stamp, and hand them to the person presenting them.

5. At 3 o'clock the clerk shall add up his book and report the total amount of checks certified to the Paying Teller, and the latter shall deposit the amount with the third or Note Teller, to the credit of a general account called "certified checks."

6. Every morning the clerk who counts in the exchanges shall, after he has cut them, separate the certified checks from the other checks, and hand them to the clerk who stamped them. He shall compare them with the entries he made the day previously, and charge the total amount of the "certified checks," then hand them to the book-keepers to be assorted, the same as the other checks. He shall make a broad and distinct mark in his book against those that have been returned; and for those not returned he shall make a ticket, which shall be cut and handed to the book-keeper as a voucher, when he hands the other checks.

7. The book-keepers of the several dealers' ledgers shall every day before they leave the bank post to the debit of the respective accounts the checks so certified, the same as if they had been regularly paid at the counter.

The object of the above is three fold:—

1. To charge certified checks immediately, the same as if paid.

2. To certify in such a manner that there shall be no mistake as to the certification.

3. To require them to pass through the hands of more than one person when they are certified.

This will, of course, reduce the amount of "individual deposits," as reported in the weekly statement, but it will show more clearly the *actual* deposits of the bank.

INDIANA FREE BANK MEETING.

A meeting of the representatives of some of the Indiana free banks, held at Indianapolis in December, reported by a committee, from which we take the following extracts:—

The convention numbered representatives from thirty-one of the free banks of the State, which, notwithstanding all the reports abroad, of general suspension, have never, at any time, refused to redeem their issue in coin.

The following facts relative to their condition were established to the satisfaction of the convention:—

Aggregate capital stock of the thirty-one banks at this time.....	\$1,966,315 00
Specie and Eastern exchange.....	554,479 00
Currency and other bank balance ..	523,047 00
Bills discounted.....	1,242,264 00
Circulation outstanding	1,248,405 00

It was proven upon examination that the stockholders of the several banks represented are able to take up entire the outstanding circulation of their respective banks, without resort to the stocks now deposited with the Auditor of the State.

In view of these facts, and the late trying ordeal through which these banks have just passed without blemish, notwithstanding the present imperfections of the laws under which they have been organized, the committee, without fear or hesitancy, challenge for them the confidence and credit of the public at home and abroad.

THE INCOME TAX OF ENGLAND.

From a recently published parliamentary returns, it appears that 148,882 persons paid income tax under schedule D in the year ending April 5, 1853. Of these 33 persons possessed more than £50,000 per annum; 373, from £10,000 to £50,000; 664, from £5,000 to £10,000; 380, from £4,000 to £5,000; 683, from £3,000 to £4,000. 1,456, from £2,000 to £3,000; 4,843, from £1,000 to £2,000; 815, above £900; 1,709 above £800; 2,004, above £700; 3,021, above £600; 5,260, above £500; 7,187, above £400; 14,679, above £300; 30,142, above £200; 40,473, above £150; and 33,158, below that amount. The four classes which contribute the most to the tax, are those from £150 to £200, from £200 to £300, from £1,000 to £2,000, and from £10,000 to £50,000, each of which pays nearly the same sum on the whole. Under schedule E, 49,800 persons paid income tax; of whom 54 paid on incomes of over £5,000 a year, and 21,296 on incomes under £150.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.**RECIPROCITY TREATY—BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.**

GENERAL REGULATIONS. NO. 36.

TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, November 10, 1854.

It is deemed advisable to issue, in the form of general regulations, the instructions forwarded to the collectors of several of the principal ports in the United States, under date of the 16th ultimo, as follows:—

In consideration of the privilege now enjoyed by citizens of the United States, as well as of the probable exemption from duty, at an early day, of "fish of all kinds, the products of fish, and of all other creatures living in the water," in pursuance of the stipulations of the reciprocity treaty of the 5th of June last, entered into between the United States and Great Britain, upon due compliance with the requirements of said treaty respectively, by the Imperial Parliament and the Provincial Parliaments of the British North American Colonies, affected by the treaty aforesaid, and in order to facilitate and promote certain arrangements and understandings (dependent upon the action of Congress) had between the Secretary of State of the United States and the British Minister, Mr. Crampton, it becomes necessary to issue the following instructions for your government, to wit:—

1. On entry at your port, for consumption, of fish of the description mentioned, and due payment of the duties thereon, you will give the owner, importer, or agent, a proper receipt therefor, with the custom-house seal attached, specifying the name and nation of the vessel or other vehicle, the date of the entry, the place from whence arriving, with the quantity and description of the fish.
2. Should the parties desire to warehouse under bond, you will permit the same to be done in accordance with existing provisions of law on the subject, taking care to give such particulars of the transaction, in the bond, as to show the true object of the obligation.

In consequence of the action of the Parliament of Canada in giving effect, on the part of that province, to the reciprocity treaty of the 5th of June last, and the order of the customs department of Canada in pursuance thereof, and similar legislative action on the part of the province of New Brunswick, of which the department has received satisfactory information, collectors and other proper officers of the customs are hereby further instructed to apply the foregoing regulations, Nos. 1 and 2, to the importations into the United States from Canada and New Brunswick of the articles (if the products of either of those provinces) enumerated in the schedule annexed to article third of the reciprocity treaty of the 5th June last, and in the first section of the act of Congress of the 5th August last, giving effect to said treaty, to wit:—

Grain, flour, and breadstuffs of all kinds.	Manures.
Animals of all kinds.	Ores of metals of all kinds.
Fresh, smoked, and salted meats.	Coal.
Cotton-wool.	Pitch, tar, turpentine.
Seeds and vegetables.	Ashes.
Undried fruits.	Timber and lumber of all kinds—round,
Dried fruits.	hewed, and sawed, unmanufactured in
Fish of all kinds.	whole or in part.
Products of fish and of all other creatures	Fire-wood, plants, shrubs, and trees.
living in the water.	Pelts.
Poultry.	Wool.
Eggs.	Fish oil.
Hides, furs, skins, or tails, undressed.	Rice.
Stone or marble in its crude or unwrought	Broom-corn and bark.
state.	Gypsum, ground or unground.
Slate.	Hewn or wrought or unwrought burr or
Butter.	grindstones.
Cheese.	Dye stuffs.
Tallow.	Flax, hemp, and tow, unmanufactured.
Lard.	Unmanufactured tobacco.
Horns.	Rags.

JAMES GUTHRIE, Secretary of the Treasury.

OF THE IMPORTATION OF BLANKETS.

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS. NO. 37.

TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.—BLANKETS, UNDER ACT OF JULY 30, 1846.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, November 16, 1854.

The attention of this Department having been given to the proper classification, under the existing tariff act, of various descriptions of merchandise imported into the United States and claimed to be admitted as "blankets," the following decision on questions arising at the principal ports, submitted to the Department, is communicated for your information and government:—

By the provisions of law in Schedule E of said act, "*blankets* of all kinds," are chargeable with a duty of 20 per cent ad valorem; and that class of manufactures at the time of the passage of the act, in the language of Commerce, by the terms of the preceding revenue laws, and according to the best lexicographic authorities consulted by the Department, was understood to comprehend only "articles of wool, loosely woven; or cotton warp and wool, loosely woven."

No species, therefore, of manufacture is considered, within the meaning and intent of the law, entitled to entry at a duty of 20 per cent ad valorem as a *blanket*, if not known and fully recognized in Commerce as a *blanket* prior to the passage of the tariff act of July 30, 1846; or if since manufactured of the like material or materials, not exclusively used as a blanket.

The only articles at this time shown to the satisfaction of the Department to have been so known and recognized, and therefore now entitled to entry at the duty of 20 per cent ad valorem, are:—

1. *All white woolen bed blankets*, composed wholly of wool, or wool and cotton, loosely woven, ornamented with colored stripes and figures, known in Commerce under the specific designations of Witney, Rose, Bath, Duffel, Point, Cradle, and Crib blankets.

2. *Mackinaw blankets*, either white or of various colors, as blue, green, and scarlet, and uniformly manufactured with an indigo heading of two inches or more in width, running across the breadth at each end of the blanket, at about four inches from the end, with broad points two inches or more in length near the stripes, to indicate the size and weight of the blanket; the article being loosely woven, neither sheared, fulled, nor pressed, but teased and raised, fully or partially, on both sides.

3. *Horse blankets*, whether white, plaided, or colored; a coarse article, loosely woven and unsheared.

On entry being offered of merchandise as *blankets*, the importer is to be required to insert therein the specific descriptive designation of the article, whether contained in either of the foregoing lists or not, under which he claims its entry as a blanket.

The following articles are considered liable under the law, to a duty of 30 per cent ad valorem :—

1. Manufactures of wool of various colors, not commercially recognized, prior to the passage of the existing tariff act, as *blankets*. These articles are understood to be manufactured in the same manner as Petersham-cloth, Pilot-cloth, Beaver-cloth, Duffel-cloth, Kerseys, Frieze cloth or Flushings, and in some degree sheared, fulled, or pressed. They are imported in the form of a blanket, as it respects dimensions, and have a very narrow and faint stripe at the extreme end.

2. Articles of wool termed *Machine blankets*, woven without end, and used for aprons over the rollers in machinery.

3. *Blanketings* of wool, not being specifically provided for in the law, chargeable as manufactures of wool.

In all cases where protest is made by the importer against the charge of 30 per cent, as manufactures of wool, on articles offered to be entered as blankets, the officers of the customs will be careful to retain samples of the article in question, duly designated and marked, and to observe all the other requirements connected with the appraisement of such goods contained in general instructions No. 11, dated November 30, 1853.

The foregoing instructions are substituted for those of the same date and number heretofore transmitted, which you are directed to cancel as rescinded.

JAMES GUTHRIE, Secretary of the Treasury.

OF THE CLASSIFICATION OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF COTTON.

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS. NO. 39.

TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, November 18, 1854.

Questions having been submitted to this Department in relation to the classification of certain articles of cotton claimed to be entitled to entry under Schedule E of the existing tariff act, at a duty of 20 per cent ad valorem, it has been decided that gloves of cotton, lined with cotton, both being made on frames, and under garments of cotton, similar to shirts, whether termed vests, jackets, or otherwise, if made on frames, are among the articles enumerated in Schedule E of the tariff, and referred to in Treasury circular of 8th of May, 1848, as so entitled to entry, under the restrictions and with the privileges specified in said circular.

JAMES GUTHRIE, Secretary of the Treasury.

APPLICATION OF RECIPROCITY TREATY.

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS. NO. 40.

TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, December 1, 1854.

The department having received satisfactory information that the lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia, in the event of that province being included in the provisions of general regulations No. 36, issued on the 10th ultimo, will, by proclamation, instruct the custom-house officers of said province to apply similar provisions on the entry at the ports of Nova Scotia of the products of the United States specified in the reciprocity treaty, you are hereby instructed to apply said general regulations to importations into the United States from Nova Scotia of the articles enumerated in said treaty, if the products either of that province, Canada, or New Brunswick.

JAMES GUTHRIE, Secretary of the Treasury.

OF BONDS FOR TRANSPORTATION OF MERCHANDISE.

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS. NO. 38.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, November 17, 1854.

SIR :—You are hereby instructed to report to this department, on the 1st of each month, a list of all bonds taken at your port for the transportation of merchandise which remain on the books of your office *expired and uncanceled*, except such bonds as have been extended by order of this department.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JAMES GUTHRIE, Secretary of the Treasury.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NOTICE TO MARINERS.

NEEDLES CHANNEL AND ENTRANCE TO PORTSMOUTH, ENGLAND—PEACOCK'S REFUGE BUOY BEACONS.

Official information has been received at this office that the Red S. W. Buoy of the Shingles, on the western side of the Needles Channel, and the Black Buoy on the southern extremity on the Spit Sand off Southsea Castle, at the entrance to Portsmouth Harbor, have been removed, and that their places are now occupied by Peacock's Refuge Buoy Beacons.

These Buoy Beacons, which are constructed of iron, are rendered very conspicuous by their large size, upright position, and conical frame-work. The upper part of this frame-work is terminated by a triangular glass reflector, which in the Beacons on the Shingles is twenty feet, and in that of the Spit Sand fourteen feet above the water.

There is a refuge dock or platform around these buoys, with a seat and rail about two feet above the surface of the water.

POSITIONS. The S. W. Buoy Beacon of the Shingles lies in six-and-three-quarter fathoms water, one mile west of the tail of the shoal; its mark being the Red Beacon on Hurst Point in one with the High Light-house. E. N. E., and the Middle Needle Rock in one with the Needles Light house, S. E. by E $\frac{1}{4}$ E.

The Buoy Beacon on the extremity of the Spit Sand, is moored in twenty-two feet water, (but there is no channel between it and the Spit.) From this Beacon the inner or Eastern Swathway mark appears half-way between St. Paul's Chapel and the west end of the large Chalk Pit, bearing N. by E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E., and the Dock Mill lies in one with the Portsdown Semaphore N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.

COAST OF SWEDEN, BOHUS BAY—CHANGE IN THE KOSTER LIGHTS.

Official information has been received at this office that the Swedish government has given notice that the Blue Receiving Light, or the northernmost of the two lights on the North Koster Island, has been recently altered, and is now a Fixed Bright Light, but is varied by flashes which succeed each other at intervals of about seven seconds, and which are visible at the distance of three miles.

The town stands in $58^{\circ} 51' 10''$ north, and 11° east of Greenwich.

[We have taken the liberty of altering the cardinal point from west to east in respect to Greenwich.]

By order of the Light-House Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Office Light-House Board, September 15, 1854.

DELAWARE BAY.

The light of the "Cross Ledge Light ship" will be exhibited as usual, from this date.

FOURTEEN FEET BANK.

A first-class new Buoy has been placed here, seventeen feet in length, painted black, numbered 9, and distinguished by a triangular frame on the top.

PEA PATCH SPIT.

A third-class new Buoy has been placed at the south end of this Spit, painted with black and red horizontal stripes, and numbered 21.

BULKHEAD SPIT.

A third-class new Buoy has also been placed on the north end of this shoal, painted with black and red horizontal stripes, and numbered 29.

JAMES S. BULILAH, Light-house Inspector.

DELAWARE BAY, September 23, 1854.

VOL. XXXII.—NO. 1.

LIGHTHOUSE ON WINGA POINT.

The following notice to mariners, relating to the Lighthouse on Winga Point, on the west coast of Sweden, was published September 8th, 1854, by direction of the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council of Trade:—

The Royal Administration of Marine announces for the information and guidance of mariners, that since a lens apparatus of the fourth degree, "a courtes eclipses," or, as it is also called, "a feu fixe varie par des eclats," has been put up on the newly constructed lighthouse on Winga Skeir, the lighting of the same will commence on the evening of the first of next September, and be kept lighted at the same times as the other Royal Lighthouses. This new lighthouse is constructed in the direction of N. E. by W. $\frac{1}{4}$ E., 400 feet distant from the old Winga Lighthouse. The new light burns at a height of 90 feet above the surface of the water, or at the same height as the present one. The two lights appear to ships open, or separated from all points of the compass between S. S. W., South over and N. W. by W., and from N. N. W., North over to S. W. by W.

In connection with the same, the light in the Lighthouse of Buskor, situated within Winga, has been altered so as to present a red appearance on the sea side, and the points which look that way, but a white one where the light is seen towards the Archipelago.

Stockholm, August 22, 1854.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

THE FLAX INDUSTRY OF RUSSIA.

The important position which Russia occupies at the present day, says the *Scientific American* in a series of articles on the cultivation of flax, as regards the production of flax and hemp, is well known, but the means of information relative to the production, exportation, or preparation of this article, in common with the statistics of the other sources of agricultural and mineral wealth in this country, are exceedingly limited. All materials for acquiring knowledge relative to these subjects, are therefore of especial value:—

The flax of Russia differs materially from that produced in either Belgium, Holland, France, Ireland, and the other flax-growing countries of Europe. While the fiber is almost always inferior, the Russian flax-seed has the highest reputation. It is a pertinent subject of inquiry—why the produce of the seed sown in this country is not equal to that produced from the seed sown elsewhere? The answer is, that the difference arises from a difference of culture, and also from a difference of soil and climate. It is a fact well known to botanists and fruit-growers, that a plant or tree yielding fruit, transferred from the north temperate zone to a southern portion of the same zone, generally improves in character and strength, being at the same time more hardy than the cognate plants growing originally in the same latitudes.

Before entering into an account of the method of cultivation followed in Russia, we would briefly direct attention to the geological constitution of the part of Russia where the cultivation of flax is prosecuted to the greatest extent. The soil of a great part of Russia rests upon a sandstone of the secondary series, red or grey in color; this rock, more or less disintegrated, extends throughout the most fertile portions of the country, from 56° north latitude to 67° north latitude, where it terminates. Starting at latitude 56° north, it extends in level tracts upon the Baltic, touching the district of Riga, stretches along the Gulf of Livonia, embraces a great part of the district of St. Petersburg, extending to Lake Onega, the White Sea, and the Gulf of Archangel, from thence it bends to the north-east, and finally terminates about 67° north latitude. The greatest width of this deposit, east and west, is between Windan, on the Baltic, and Torapetz to the east. The surface comprehends, *first*, all the basin of the River Don; *second*, a great part of the course of the Volga; *third*, a great part of the course of the Onega, even to its mouth; *fourth*, most of the basin of the Dwina,

even as far as its entrance into the Gulf of Archangel. The climate of this country, as indicated by the mean temperature, is as follows:—In the level country along the Baltic, $52^{\circ} 50'$ north latitude, the yearly mean of the thermometer is 46° Fah. Alcan temperature of the winter, 32° ; summer, 62° ; autumn, 45° . St. Petersburg, situated at $39^{\circ} 56'$, has a mean temperature of 38° ; in the months of greatest heat the mean temperature is 65° ; in the months of greatest cold the mean is $8^{\circ} 6'$.

Archangel is situated upon the Dwina, near its entrance into the White Sea. During ten months of the year, from September to July, all access to this place by water is prevented by ice. The Dwina remains frozen until the month of April or May. On the 11th of June the sun remains above the horizon from 1h. 27m. morn., until 10h. 37m. eve. On the 11th of December it appears only from 10h. 9m. morn., to 1h. 51m. noon. This district is included in that zone where the light continues during an entire month, from the commencement of June to the first week in July. To the constant light and heat of this month the production of flax is due.

Odessa, the center of another flax growing district of Russia, is situated on the Black Sea; latitude $46^{\circ} 59'$ north, between the mouths of the Dneiper and Dniester. The soil is of the older tertiary formation, designated by Murchisson as the older Caspian. The climate closely resembles that of the south of France.

Although the flax culture is less advanced in Russia than in other parts of Europe, we have reason to believe that it has been known there for centuries, at least in the vicinity of Odessa. In the historical notice of the flax culture in Belgium, given in a preceding chapter, it was stated that the art of cultivating and preparing flax was undoubtedly introduced into Flanders by a nation of people who emigrated from the shores of the Black Sea.

But Lithuania, Livonia, and the provinces of Pleskoff, Novgorod, and Archangel, are the districts which, at the present day, furnish the bulk and better qualities of Russia flax. In southern Russia they cultivate but comparatively little flax for the fiber, but considerable for the seed, the exportation of which to foreign countries is rapidly becoming of great importance. The culture of flax in the north, west, and central portions of the empire requires the use of manure, and of thorough plowing and pulverization of the soil; but in the southern portions of Russia a single plowing, imperfectly performed in the autumn, without the use of manure, is sufficient preparation for obtaining an excellent crop of flax, especially when the season has been moderately moist. In favorable seasons the product of seed is from twenty to twenty-five bushels for one, but the average of the whole country is not more than eight to twelve bushels for every one of seed.

The proprietors who cultivate flax for the seed use the stalks for fuel, not knowing how to turn them to any better account. They also cut or mow the flax instead of pulling it, which renders it somewhat unsuitable for the production of fiber.

The method of cultivation in that part of Russia where they make but little use of the straw, is as follows:—They sow on the virgin soil of the steppes, in the vicinity of Odessa, or upon land which has been cultivated with grain or some other crop the preceding year. The crop can be repeated in the same soil for two succeeding years, without any inconvenience. The labor of cultivation is extremely simple. They plow to the depth of about six inches once in the autumn. In the spring they harrow with care, and between the 15th of April and the 1st of May they sow broadcast about three English pecks of seed to two-and-a-half acres. When they design to preserve the fiber, they sow about one-third more flax. The crop is a certain one if it rains but a very little during the months of May and June. This flax-seed is highly esteemed for exportation, and as it sells for highly remunerative prices, namely, from \$1.50 to \$2 per bushel, the culture rapidly increases in southern Russia. In 1830, the amount of seed exported was 13,000 bushels; in 1838, it had increased to 300,000, in 1839, to 350,000, representing a value of about \$600,000. The exportation of flax fiber from this section of country is small, as hand labor is dear, and the population sparse. The small quantity which is prepared is imperfect and low priced. The rotting is made ordinarily with water, but occasionally dew-rotting is pursued. The subsequent operations, including that of spinning and weaving, are conducted in a manner equally rude and imperfect. The manufacture of cloth is exceedingly restricted, and is wholly of a domestic character, and the production not exceeding the local consumption.

In the district known as New Russia, the amount of cloth is not sufficient for the home demand, and the deficit is made up by importations from the northern portions of the empire.

BEANS AND PEAS.

Pulse of various kinds, from the facility with which they are produced in almost every country of the globe, and the highly nutritive properties which they usually possess, have been a favorite food for man and animals among all nations and in every age of the world. Thus we find that the Athenians employed sodden beans in their feasts dedicated to Apollo, and that the Romans presented them as an oblation in their solemn sacrifice called "Fabaria." Pliny informs us that they offered bean-meal cakes to certain gods and goddesses in these ancient rites and ceremonies; and Lempriere states that bacon was added to beans in the offerings to Cama, not so much to gratify the palate of that goddess as to represent the simplicity of their ancestors.

The common garden bean came originally from the East, and was cultivated in Egypt and Barbary in the earliest ages of which we have any records. It was brought into Spain and Portugal in the early part of the eighth century, whence some of the best varieties were introduced into other parts of Europe, and finally into the United States.

The first beans introduced from Europe into the British North American colonies were by Captain Gosnold, in 1602, who planted them on the Elizabeth Islands, near the coast of Massachusetts, where they flourished well. They were also cultivated in Newfoundland as early as the year 1622; in New Netherland, in 1644; and in Virginia, prior to 1648. French, Indian, or kidney beans were extensively cultivated by the Indians of New York and New England long before their settlement by the whites; and both beans and peas, of various hues, were cultivated by the natives of Virginia prior to the landing of Captain Smith. Among these was embraced the celebrated cow-pea, at present so extensively cultivated at the South for feeding stock, as well as for the purposes of making into fodder and for plowing under, like clover, as a fallow crop.

The common pea is supposed to have been indigenous to the south of Europe, and was cultivated both by the Greeks and Romans. Its introduction into the British North American colonies probably dates back to the early periods of their settlement by Europeans as it is enumerated, in several instances, among the cultivated products of this country by our early historians.

The amount of peas exported from Savannah in 1655 was 400 bushels; in 1770, 601 bushels; from Charleston, in 1754, 9,162 bushels; from North Carolina, in 1753, 10,000 bushels; annually from Virginia, before the Revolution, 5,000 bushels; annually from the United, twenty years preceding 1817, 90,000 bushels. The amount of beans annually exported during the last named period, from 30,000 to 40,000 bushels.

According to the census returns of 1850, the amount of beans and peas cultivated in the United States was 9,219,901 bushels. The quantity of 1853, exclusive of those raised by market gardeners, may be estimated at 9,300,000 bushels; which, at \$1.50, would be worth \$13,950,000.

CATTLE: WITH STATISTICS OF THE EXPORT OF THEIR PRODUCT.

We give below a brief history of the introduction of cattle into this country, together with full statistics of the export of cattle, beef, hides, butter, and cheese, in each year from 1830 to 1853. It is derived from a report on domestic animals, prepared by D. J. Brown, the distinguished naturalist:—

The first cattle brought to America from Europe were imported by Columbus in his second voyage, in 1493. He left Spain as admiral of seventeen ships, bringing a collection of trees, plants, and seeds of various kinds, a number of horses, a bull, and several cows.

The Portuguese took cattle and swine to Newfoundland and Nova Scotia in the year 1553. Thirty years after they had multiplied to such an extent that Sir Richard Gilbert attempted to land there to obtain supplies of cattle and hogs for his crew, but was wrecked.

Cattle and other domestic animals were brought into Acadia by M. L'Escarbot, a French lawyer, in 1604, the year that country was settled. In 1608 the French extended their settlement into Canada, and soon after introduced various animals.

The first cattle introduced into Virginia was previous to 1609. In 1610 Sir Ralph Lane brought cows to that colony from the West Indies. The same year an edict was issued prohibiting the killing of domestic animals of any kind on penalty of death to the principal, burning the hand and loss of the ears to the accessory, and twenty-four

hours' whipping to the concealer. In 1611 Sir Thomas Gates brought into the same settlement one hundred cows, besides other cattle. The number of horned cattle in Virginia in 1620, was about 500; in 1639, 30,000; in 1648, only 20,000, including bulls, cows, and calves.

The first cattle introduced into the Plymouth colony were imported by Edward Winslow in the ship "Charity," in 1624, consisting of three heifers and a bull. From other accounts, they came in the ship "Ann," which made her first voyage in 1623. In 1626 twelve cows were sent to Cape Ann, and thirty more in 1629. In 1627 the cattle and goats of the Plymouth Company were divided among the colonists in a manner to remain for ten years, the old stock to be kept for common, and the new animals to be appropriated to their own use. Among them are mentioned black heifers, black cows, red cows, and a white-backed cow. In 1629 100 animals were imported under the direction of Francis Higginson, formerly of Leicestershire, for the Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay, in New England, among which were sixty or seventy oxen and cows. Most of the latter arrived safe. Owing to the loss of cattle by the Indians and wolves, and the expenses of importation and keeping, the price at first was so high as to put them beyond the reach of many of the colonists. A red calf, however, soon became cheaper than a black one, on account of the greater probability of its being mistaken for a deer and killed by the wolves. In 1636, when cows were so high as to be sold from 25*l.* to 30*l.* each, and oxen for 40*l.* a pair, a quart of new milk or four eggs could be bought for a penny; a pound of butter for six pence; and a pound of Cheshire cheese for five pence.

The first cattle introduced into New Hampshire were from Denmark, procured by Capt. John Mason and his associate, in about the year 1631 or 1652, to stock their plantations and to become employed in drawing lumber. These cattle were of a large size and of a yellowish color. The calves were allowed to run with their dams at pleasure. Their owners were ambitious to be distinguished by the strength and size of their oxen, on which bets and prizes were often made. This breed of cattle remained pure and unmixed near Agamenticus, in Maine, down to about the year 1820. In 1645 they had so multiplied that 100 oxen belonging to Mason's plantation, near Portsmouth, were driven to Charlestown, Massachusetts, and there sold for 20*l.* a head. In 1652 the number of cattle in Charlestown was 400. In the inventory of Piscataqua and Norridgewock, in 1635, there were 2 bulls, 24 cows, 22 heifers and steers, and 10 calves. In 1636, 160 cattle were driven from Newton, Massachusetts, to Hartford, Connecticut, the emigrants feeding on their milk on the way.

The first importation into New Netherland was made from the Island of Texel, in Holland, by the Dutch West India Company, in 1625, comprising 103 animals, consisting of horses and cattle for breeding. In 1637 an ox in that colony was worth from \$32 to \$56; in 1646 the price of a cow was from \$20 to \$48; a bull calf, \$3 20; in 1650, a milk cow, with her second or third calf, was valued at \$40. At this period of settlement, the West India Company not only furnished each tenant with land, a house, barn, and farming implements and tools, but 4 cows, 4 horses, sheep, and pigs, for the term of six years, at the expiration of which he was required to return the number of animals received. The entire increase remained with each farmer, who was bound to pay yearly \$40 and 80 lbs. of butter, rent for the cleared land. Afterwards, the cattle belonging to the company were distributed for some years among those who had no means of purchasing stock.

Cattle were introduced into the settlements on the Delaware by the Swedish West India Company, from Sweden, in 1627.

The first cattle introduced into Carolina were brought from England by William Sayle, in 1670, to Old Charleston, on the south side of Ashley River. General Wade Hampton and Colonel William Singleton were both engaged in importing cattle, as well as horses, before the revolution.

The Indians on the Red River, in Louisiana, possessed cattle as early as 1690.

Cattle were first brought to the Savannah settlement, in Georgia, by Oglethorpe, in 1732. Others were introduced into the same colony in 1735.

In 1750, the best dairy farms in Rhode Island contained upwards of 100 cows, annually producing 100 loads of hay, and sold 12,000 lbs. of cheese, besides butter, bullocks, and calves. On one farm 73 cows made 10,000 lbs. of butter in five months. Two acres of good land sustained one cow.

In 1750 the French of Illinois were in possession of considerable numbers of cattle, horses, and swine.

In 1783, Messrs. Goff, Ringold, and Patton, of Baltimore, sent an order to England for superior cattle, for the purpose of improving the breed in the United States; and

In 1785 Mr. Patton, jun., carried a bull from that importation to Clarke county, Kentucky. Mr. Patton, sen., some time afterwards followed his son, taking with him another portion of the same lot of stock. This old bull, then eighteen years old, was sold at public auction for \$133 33. Mr. Harrison, a brother-in-law of Mr. Patton, also carried a short horned bull to the same county in 1804. This is said to have been a very fine animal, and greatly improved the stock of that region. Messrs. Hutchcroft and Welton also carried another descendant of the short horned stock to Kentucky from the same importation.

About the year 1797 a Mr. Heaton, of Dutchess county, New York, imported from England a short horned bull, which was afterwards hired by Gen. Morgan Lewis and others for public use in that county.

From entering at large and minutely on the circumstances connected with the importation of all the domestic animals brought into this country since the commencement of the present century, we are prevented as much by the want of the necessary information as by the immediate object and limited length of these papers. We will, therefore, leave the subject for a future occasion, after giving a short sketch of the other animals early introduced, and the statistics of the animals and their products exported at various periods of our history.

Among the early exports of cattle and beef from this country may be noted those shipped from Savannah, in Georgia, in 1755, which consisted of 16 steers and 40 barrels of beef. In 1770 there were exported from the same place 23 steers and cows, 639 bbls. of beef, and 4,985 lbs. of tallow. In 1772 there were shipped from that port 136 steers and cows. The amount of beef exported from Charleston, South Carolina, in 1747-8, was 1,764 bbls., besides 130 casks of butter; in 1754, 416 bbls.; from Philadelphia in 1752, 3,431 bbls.; in 1767, 609 bbls.; in 1796, 6,860 bbls. The amount of beef exported from the United States in 1791 was 62,771 bbls.; in 1800, 75,045 bbls.; in 1810, 47,699 bbls.; in 1815, 13,130 bbls.

The number, quantities, and values of horned cattle and their products, exported from the United States within the last 33 years, are shown by the following table:—

Year.	Cattle. Number.	Beef. Barrels.	Hides. Number.	Tallow. Pounds.	Value. Dollars.
1820-1.....	5,018	66,887	13,558	81,691	698,323
1821-2.....	3,557	97,610	15,079	63,856	844,534
1822-3.....	2,865	61,418	42,499	735,333	739,461
1823-4.....	2,759	66,074	46,166	96,261	707,299
1824-5.....	3,095	83,025	56,043	533,451	930,465
1825-6.....	3,427	72,886	29,841	423,610	733,430
1826-7.....	3,768	90,685	22,883	301,983	772,636
1827-8.....	1,193	66,640	39,642	422,130	719,961
1828-9.....	2,044	51,100	44,282	491,106	674,955
1829-30.....	4,125	46,842	50,146	533,436	717,683
1830-1.....	5,881	60,770	299,473	679,623	829,982
1831-2.....	8,123	55,507	52,110	622,522	774,087
1832-3.....	6,837	64,322	53,179	676,841	958,076
1833-4.....	6,441	46,181	60,015	771,239	755,219
1834-5.....	7,318	38,028	41,495	491,412	638,761
1835-6.....	4,683	50,226	30,379	443,765	699,116
1836-7.....	3,237	28,076	112,096	163,795	585,146
1837-8.....	2,826	23,491	56,762	363,936	528,231
1838-9.....	1,775	16,189	33,852	118,037	371,646
1839-40.....	4,259	19,681	112,500	273,946	623,373
1840-1.....	7,861	56,537	45,898	980,027	904,918
1841-2.....	9,887	48,581	58,187	7,038,092	1,212,638
1842-3.....	5,181	37,812	50,340	7,489,582	1,092,949
1843-4.....	10,822	106,474	62,658	9,915,366	1,810,551
1844-5.....	5,252	101,538	111,636	10,022,504	1,926,809
1845-6.....	3,101	149,223	143,323	10,435,696	2,474,808
1846-7.....	3,383	111,979	181,394	11,172,975	2,434,003
1847-8.....	1,919	103,719	36,145	8,004,235	1,905,341
1848-9.....	2,607	103,286	23,390	9,334,158	2,058,958
1849-50.....	1,848	95,307	71,940	3,858,459	1,605,608
1850-1.....	1,350	90,648	86,624	8,198,278	1,689,958
1851-2.....	1,078	122,259	55,421	4,767,020	1,500,429
1852-3.....	1,076	126,041	25,955	3,926,598	2,214,554

Years.	Butter. Pounds.	Cheese. Pounds.	Value. Dollars.	Tallow candles. Pounds.
1820-1.....	1,069,024	766,131	190,287	1,453,628
1821-2.....	1,149,783	722,548	221,041	1,564,460
1822-3.....	1,171,701	591,689	192,778	1,682,917
1823-4.....	1,386,232	933,158	204,205	2,186,177
1824-5.....	1,442,197	1,230,104	247,787	2,336,408
1825-6.....	1,176,579	735,399	207,765	2,062,225
1826-7.....	1,448,480	641,385	184,049	2,236,397
1827-8.....	1,184,329	688,548	176,354	2,348,501
1828-9.....	969,137	916,695	176,205	2,522,975
1829-30.....	899,396	688,241	142,370	2,443,045
1830-1.....	1,728,212	1,131,817	264,796	2,669,211
1831-2.....	1,501,686	1,391,852	290,820	2,498,776
1832-3.....	1,346,344	1,213,092	258,452	2,410,385
1833-4.....	1,084,960	819,567	190,099	2,950,301
1834-5.....	684,624	887,000	164,809	2,503,883
1835-6.....	361,395	486,234	114,032	2,275,913
1836-7.....	281,939	411,338	96,176	1,606,424
1837-8.....	495,108	664,660	148,191	1,820,145
1838-9.....	424,609	519,017	127,550	1,810,003
1839-40.....	1,177,639	723,217	210,749	1,710,454
1840-1.....	3,785,992	1,748,471	504,815	2,145,845
1841-2.....	2,055,133	2,456,607	388,185	1,981,602
1842-3.....	3,408,247	3,440,144	508,968	1,998,357
1843-4.....	3,251,952	7,243,145	758,829	3,086,566
1844-5.....	3,587,489	7,941,187	878,865	3,490,736
1845-6.....	3,436,660	8,675,390	1,063,087	3,718,714
1846-7.....	4,214,433	15,637,600	1,741,770	3,094,935
1847-8.....	2,751,086	12,913,305	1,361,668	3,468,593
1848-9.....	3,406,242	17,433,682	1,659,157	3,170,109
1849-50.....	3,876,175	13,020,817	1,215,463	3,587,884
1850-1.....	3,994,542	10,361,189	1,124,652	3,227,633
1851-2.....	2,222,264	6,650,420	779,391	3,612,002
1852-3.....	2,658,911	3,763,932	862,343	2,772,189

According to the census returns of 1840, the number of horned animals in the United States was 14,971,856; of 1850, there were 6,385,094 cows, 1,760,744 oxen, and 9,693,369 other cattle, one year old and older, (in the aggregate 17,778,907), showing an increase of 2,807,321. The present number of cattle may be estimated at 20,000,000, which, at \$20 each, would amount to \$400,000,000.

HISTORY AND STATISTICS OF FLAX AND HEMP.

Common flax is an inhabitant of temperate countries, from the neighborhood of the tropics to the polar circle, wherever the temperature of the climate is not depressed by mountain elevations; but it is not known to what region it owes its origin. It may be thought strange, perhaps, by some, that this plant should thrive in the hot valley of the Nile, and in regions so cold as those of Russia and Norway, in latitude 65° N.; but this circumstance is obvious when we consider how rapidly this plant completes the cycle of its growth, and that in the north of Europe it is an object of culture in summer, and in Egypt only in winter. In the latter, it is sown in December or January, in the fields just quitted by the overflowing Nile, and is harvested in April or May; in the north of Russia, it is sown in May, and harvested in August or September; the conditions of the temperature of the two places being nearly the same.

The history of this plant, which has long served as the medium of clothing myriads of human beings, of wafting ships from sea to sea, of conveying thoughts from man to man, from nation to nation, and of diffusing light and knowledge to the utmost

parts of the earth, like many of our products, is involved in lost antiquity. Early mention is made of it in the sacred volume, where it is said that "hail destroyed the flax and barley," when Moses was striving in vain to move Pharaoh to allow the departure of the Israelites. The Egyptian mummies are wrapped in linen—an undeniable proof of the use of flax in the remotest past. It was also known to the Romans, as Pliny, who wrote more than eighteen hundred years ago, remarks on the wonder that so great a power should be developed from so small a seed as that of flax, in producing a plant which could be the means of bringing Egypt so near to Italy, in allusion to the fact that Commerce and navigation depended principally upon its production, but at the same time grew angry that men should venture to brave nature by setting sails on their vessels, and cursed those who invented the mariner's art, as well as those who brought it to pass that men should perish by it, not only on the earth, but on the sea, without finding burial.

Hemp, which is supposed to be a native of India, but long since acclimatized and extensively cultivated in various parts of Europe and America, also forms an article of primary importance in Commerce, and is of extensive utility.

Both flax and hemp were introduced into the British North American colonies soon after their settlements by Europeans. The former appears to have been cultivated at New Netherland as early as 1626, as it is mentioned among other products sent to Holland by the colonists on Manhattan Island that year, as an evidence of their prosperous condition.

According to the records of the Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay, in New England, the seeds of hemp and flax were ordered to be introduced into that colony in 1629. In about the year 1745, some emigrants from the north of Ireland came to Massachusetts and established an improved manufacture of linen and other "spinning work." Many trials had been previously made in that colony for raising hemp, but the soil was not considered sufficiently strong. Two acres of cow-pen land would produce a ton of fiber, but it soon exhausted the soil. Flax was cultivated in considerable abundance in that State soon after the war of independence, particularly at a distance from the coast. Manufactures were established at Salem and Springfield in about the year 1790, for making sail-cloth.

Hemp and flax were annually cultivated, spun, and woven, by Capt. Matthews, of Virginia, prior to 1648. Bounties were offered for the production of hemp in that colony in 1651, and flax in 1657; but on the cessation of the bounties, the culture declined. In 1662, each poll in Virginia was required to raise per annum six pounds of linen thread. The Irish emigrants who came to Londonderry, in New Hampshire, in 1719, soon after commenced the manufacture of linen cloth and thread, which was afterwards entered into by others, and large quantities were sold.

In 1730 the Assembly of Pennsylvania passed an act for the encouragement of growing hemp, showing that some progress had already been made in its manufacture. The Irish settlers of that colony manufactured considerable quantities of linen, besides enough for their own consumption.

In 1733 the British Parliament granted to the patentees of Georgia, for the encouragement of the culture of wine, silk, cotton, wool, cochineal, flax, and hemp, 10,000*l.*, between that period and 1743, 120,000*l.*, in 1749, 5,324*l.*

Early attention was paid to the cultivation and manufacture of flax and hemp in Ohio, Kentucky, and Indiana. Between November 24, 1810, and January 24, 1811, there were transported down the Ohio in flat-boats, 400 lbs. of hemp, 479 lbs. of tarred rope, 20,784 lbs. of bale-rope, 154,000 lbs. of rope yarn, 1,484 lbs. of thread, 27,700 yds. of bagging, and 4,619 yds. of tow-cloth. Extensive factories had already been established at Louisville, Lexington, Shelbyville, and Frankfort, in Kentucky, where considerable quantities of cordage, bagging, &c. were made for transport and domestic use.

The Harmonists of Indiana erected a mill prior to 1796, in which they manufactured 4,000 lbs. of flax and hemp in 1809. Since that period, the rich lands of the Western States have been more or less cultivated with hemp, which is now produced as a staple crop.

The fibers of flax and hemp have never been produced in this country in sufficient abundance to enter into our foreign Commerce, nor for domestic use in the finer articles of wearing apparel, except thread and lace. Liberal premiums have been offered by the American Institute of New York, and other institutions, for the manufacture of finer fabrics, samples of which have been produced from time to time that reflected much credit on those who made them, and which were pronounced equal to any imported.

There were exported from New Jersey in 1751, 14,000 lbs. of hemp; from Savannah, in 1770, 1,860 lbs. The amount of flaxseed exported from Philadelphia in 1752, was 50,000 bushels; in 1767, 84,658 bushels; in 1771, 110,412 bushels; from New York in 1755, 12,528 hogsheds.

The amount exported from the British North American colonies in 1770, 312,612 bushels; from the United States in 1791, 292,460 bushels; in 1800, 289,684 bushels; in 1810, 240,579 bushels.

The quantities and values of flax and hemp, and their products, exported from the United States, of domestic growth and manufacture, within the last thirty-three years, are exhibited in the following table:—

Years.	Hemp. Cwt.	Value. Dollars.	Flaxseed. Bush.	Value. Dollars.	Linseed oil. Galls.	Value. Dollars.	Linen cloth and thread. Dollars.	Wagg, &c. Dollars.
1820-1..	264,310	420,202	16,370
1821-2..	289,111	392,772	18,527
1822-3..	232,761	262,314	13,594
1823-4..	377,226	504,327	13,924
1824-5..	234,042	234,845	9,022
1825-6..	117,672	144,908	9,117	2,937	5,444
1826-7..	124,287	188,606	9,673	11,084	5,364
1827-8..	118,492	144,095	9,200	5,335	3,865
1828-9..	68,758	113,040	5,322	2,166	14,954
1829-30..	115,762	180,973	3,914	2,152	1,779
1830-1..	120,702	216,376	8,642	231	2,599
1831-2..	57,537	123,036	4,495	1,570	2,685
1832-3..	117,292	228,300	3,159	5,964	18,985
1833-4..	187,468	281,990	15,728	4,889	6,162
1834-5..	228,863	451,886	2,370	795	1,575
1835-6..	123,926	250,182	1,785	6,720	7,385
1836-7..	33,147	50,553	4,660	18,422	29,898
1837-8..	35,651	55,954	5,604	1,244	2,146
1838-9..	66,781	161,896	3,253	2,010	2,047
1839-40..	76,970	120,000	3,968	7,114	1,128
1840-1..	32,243	50,781	10,072	2,764	10,636
1841-2..	18,354	34,991	4,367	1,038
1842-3..	35,002	49,406	4,185	326
1843-4..	15,006	23,749	6,327	311
1844-5..	178,007	81,978	7,416	950	13,812
1845-6..	107,959	165,438	8,656	1,364	10,765
1846-7..	968	1,346	6,701	477	5,305
1847-8..	1,017	1,584	11,066	495	6,218
1848-9..	4	4	7,797	1,009	4,549
1849-50..	787	5,633	2,501	4,040	13,448	1,183	10,593
1850-1..	4,769	29,114	9,185	18,988	20,193	1,647	6,376
1851-2..	3,067	18,649	31,304	56,187	18,073	14,981	5,468	8,154
1852-3..	2,413	18,195	3,932	7,719	18,266	15,468	2,924	13,860

According to the census returns of 1840, there were raised in the United States 95,251½ tons of flax and hemp; of 1850, 34,871 tons of hemp, and 7,709,676 lbs. of flax, besides 562,312 bushels of flaxseed—showing a diminution in the aggregate growth of fiber of about 56,000 tons. The amount of hemp raised in the Union in 1853 may be estimated at 34,000 tons; and that of flax, 8,000,000 lbs., besides 58,000 bushels of flaxseed—which, in reckoning the hemp at \$100 per ton, the flax fiber at ten cents per lb., and the seed at \$1 25 per bushel, would be worth, in the aggregate, \$4,272,500.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

THE RAILWAYS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The number of miles of railway now in operation upon the surface of the globe is 40,344; of which 17,020 are in the Eastern, and 23,324 are in the Western Hemisphere, and which are distributed as follows:—In Great Britain, 7,774 miles; in Germany, 5,340 miles; in France, 2,480 miles; in Belgium, 532 miles; in Russia, 422 miles; in Italy, 170 miles; in Sweden, 75 miles; in Norway, 42 miles; in Spain, 60 miles; in Africa, 25 miles; in India, 100 miles; in the United States, 21,528 miles; in the British Provinces, 1,327 miles; in the island of Cuba, 359 miles; in Panama, 50 miles; in South America, 60 miles.

The longest railway in the world is the Illinois Central, which, with its branches, is 731 miles in length, and has been constructed at a cost of \$15,000,000. The number of miles of railway in the United States exceeds the rest of the world by the amount of 2,712 miles.

The total number of railways completed in the United States is 271; the number, of railways in course of construction is 174; the number of miles in operation, 21,528, which have been constructed at a cost of \$616,766,333. The number of miles in course of construction is 16,738.

The State of Massachusetts has one mile of railway to each seven square miles of its geographical surface; Essex County, in that State, with a geographical surface of 400 square miles, has 159 miles of railway facility; which is a ratio of one mile of railway to each three square miles of its surface.

For the names, length, locality, and cost of the railways in the United States, the reader is referred to the tables below:—

MAINE.

Names of railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in operation, course including of branches.	Miles in construction.	Cost.
Androscoggin.....	September 15, 1852...	20	..	\$1,000,000
Androscoggin and Kennebec....	December 1, 1850	55	..	2,176,506
Atlantic and St. Lawrence.....	January 29, 1853.....	149	..	4,242,823
Bangor and Piscataqua.....	December 10, 1836 ...	12	..	350,000
Buckfield	December 5, 1848	13	..	370,000
Calais and Baring.....	December 20, 1851 ...	6	..	100,000
Kennebec and Penobscot.....	January 1, 1855.....	56	..	2,000,000
Machias Port.....	December 15, 1854 ...	3	..	100,000
Portland and Kennebec.....	November 1, 1852....	72	..	3,000,000
Portland, Saco, and Portsmouth.	November 22, 1842....	52	..	1,486,327
Somerset and Kennebec.....	15
York and Cumberland.....	13	35	500,060

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Ashuelot.....	December 31, 1849 ...	24	..	496,985
Boston, Concord, and Montreal ..	May 30, 1853	93	..	2,540,417
Cheshire.....	November 20, 1849....	54	..	2,584,143
Cocheo	October 15, 1849	18	..	500,000
Concord	November 10, 1845....	35	..	1,385,788
Conticook Valley.....	December 5, 1850	14	..	219,450
Great Falls.....	October 1, 1843	3	..	60,000
Great Falls and Conway	November 30, 1849....	13	..	300,000
Manchester and Lawrence.....	December 19, 1849 ...	26	..	717,543
Merrimac and Connecticut River.....	52	24	1,190,904

Names of railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in operation, course including of con-branches. struct'n.	Cost.
Northern	November 9, 1819.....	82 ..	\$3,016,634
Portsmouth and Concord	December 31, 1854 ..	40 ..	1,075,576
Portsmouth and Dover	10
Sullivan	December 4, 1850 ..	25 ..	673,500
White Mountain	July 31, 1853	15 ..	500,000
Wilton	September 29, 1851 ..	18 ..	600,000

VERMONT.

Bennington Branch	6
Connecticut and Passumpsic	61 53	1,500,000
Rutland and Burlington	December 31, 1851 ..	119 ..	4,535,269
Vermont and Canada	November 30, 1850 ..	38 ..	1,200,000
Vermont Central	November 1, 1849 ..	115 ..	8,463,566
Vermont Valley	December 20, 1851 ..	24 ..	1,000,000
Western Vermont	June 20, 1852	53 ..	1,000,000

MASSACHUSETTS.

Amherst and Belchertown	May 9, 1853	19 ..	263,744
Berkshire	December 1, 1842 ..	21 ..	600,000
Boston and Lowell	June 24, 1835	28 ..	2,044,536
Boston and Maine	June 24, 1835	83 ..	4,111,346
Boston and New York Central ..	December 31, 1854 ..	74 ..	4,000,000
Boston and Providence	June 11, 1835	55 ..	3,576,041
Boston and Worcester	July 3 1835	69 ..	4,850,755
Cape Cod Branch	November 20, 1853 ..	29 ..	633,907
Charles River Branch	December 31, 1852 ..	9 ..	253,808
Connecticut River	November 1, 1847 ..	52 ..	1,892,215
Danvers and Georgetown	September 1, 1854 ..	14 ..	400,000
Dorchester and Milton	May 1, 1847	3 ..	117,798
Eastern	November 9, 1840 ..	98 ..	5,000,000
Essex	March 1, 1849	21 ..	738,425
Fitchburg	March 5, 1845	69 ..	3,716,870
Fitchburg and Worcester	February 11, 1850 ..	14 ..	319,159
Grand Junction	7 ..	1,385,712
Harvard Branch	December 31, 1849 ..	1 ..	25,701
Lexington and West Cambridge ..	September 1, 1846 ..	7 ..	232,386
Lowell and Lawrence	July 1, 1848	12 ..	363,658
Medway Branch	December 31, 1852 ..	4 ..	36,073
Nashua and Lowell	October 8, 1838	15 ..	651,215
New Bedford and Taunton	July 2, 1840	21 ..	529,965
Newburyport	December 31, 1852 ..	15 ..	281,721
Old Colony and Fall River	November 10, 1845 ..	87 ..	3,343,535
Peterboro' and Shirley	February 15, 1848 ..	14 ..	232,386
Pittsfield and North Adams	October 8, 1846	18 ..	443,568
Providence and Worcester	October 20, 1847 ..	43 ..	1,806,076
Salem and Lowell	August 5, 1850	17 ..	362,852
South Shore	January 1, 1849	11 ..	435,164
Stockbridge and Pittsfield	January 1, 1850	22 ..	448,700
Stony Brook ..	July 1, 1848	13 ..	266,134
Stoughton Branch	April 7, 1845	4 ..	93,433
Taunton Branch	August 8, 1834	12 ..	307,136
Troy and Greenfield	31 36	700,000
Vermont and Massachusetts	February 20, 1849 ..	77 ..	3,456,313
Western	December 21, 1841 ..	155 ..	9,953,259
West Stockbridge	November 30, 1838 ..	3 ..	41,516
Worcester and Nashua	December 15, 1848 ..	46 ..	1,342,594

RHODE ISLAND.

Providence and Stonington	November 10, 1837	50 ..	2,614,484
---------------------------------	-------------------------	-------	-----------

CONNECTICUT.

Names of railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in operation, including of branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Air Line.....	December 31, 1854 ..	50	\$2,158,000
Danbury.....	May 26, 1852.....	24	869,738
Hartford and New Haven	December 26, 1841 ..	62	3,470,000
Hartford, Providence, & Fishkill.....	50	51	3,008,214
Housatonic.....	February 12, 1840.....	74	2,487,754
Middletown Branch.....	November 30, 1851.....	11	250,000
Naugatuck.....	October 31, 1849	58	1,530,908
New Haven and New London.....	June 20, 1852.....	50	1,375,912
New Haven and New York.....	November 24, 1849.....	62	5,131,948
New Haven and Northampton ..	January 20, 1854.....	65	1,400,900
New London, Willimantic, & Palmer.....	September 1, 1850.....	66	1,524,329
Norwich and Worcester.....	November 30, 1840.....	66	2,596,488

NEW YORK.

Albany and Rutland.....	June 28, 1852.....	90	2,000,000
Albany and Susquehannah.....	140
Attica and Alleghany.....	30	44	1,000,000
Black River and Utica.....	60	49	2,000,000
Buffalo, Corning, and New York.....	90	44	3,000,000
Buffalo and Lockport	December 31, 1854 ..	26	800,000
Buffalo and New York City.....	January 1, 1855.....	91	3,343,483
Buffalo and Niagara Falls	August 1, 1853.....	22	492,130
Buffalo and State Line.....	February 23, 1852.....	69	2,220,592
Canandaigua and Jefferson.....	September 15, 1851.....	68	1,147,248
Canandaigua and Niagara Falls.....	August 1, 1853.....	99	2,634,314
Cayuga and Susquehannah.....	November 15, 1844.....	35	1,076,321
Central.....	621	..	24,933,340
Hudson and Berkshire	December 10, 1841 ..	31	824,331
Hudson River.....	October 1, 1851	150	11,780,954
Lake Ontario, Auburn, & Ithaca.....	75
Lebanon Springs.....	22
Long Island	August 5, 1844.....	95	2,470,011
New York and Erie	July 15, 1851.....	464	31,222,834
New York and Harlem	January 19, 1852.....	131	6,102,931
Northern (Albany)	November 5, 1853.....	32	1,000,000
Northern (Ogdensburg).....	October 1, 1850	118	4,720,663
Ogdensburg, Clayton, & Rome.....	137
Oswego and Syracuse.....	December 31, 1835 ..	35	632,598
Potsdam and Watertown.....	November 20, 1854.....	76	2,000,000
Rensselaer and Saratoga	November 30, 1832.....	47	1,278,281
Rome, Watertown, and St. Vincent.....
.....cent.....	August 19, 1851.....	96	2,040,544
Sacketts' Harbor & Ellisburg ..	December 31, 1852 ..	18	386,894
Sacketts' Harbor & Saratoga.....	182
Sodus Bay and Southern	35
Syracuse and Binghamton	August 31, 1854.....	70	1,800,000
Utica and Binghamton.....	73

NEW JERSEY.

Belvidere and Delaware.....	January 1, 1854.....	63	1,900,000
Burlington and Mt. Holly.....	December 31, 1850 ..	6	75,000
Camden and Absecon	June 27, 1854.....	60	1,500,000
Camden and Amboy.....	July 6, 1831.....	90	3,868,901
Camden and Amboy Branch.....	November 30, 1840.....	26	520,000
Camden and Woodbury.....	October 31, 1847	9	100,000
Morris and Essex	December 26, 1851 ..	44	1,461,263
New Jersey	June 28, 1836.....	31	680,000
New Jersey Central	July 3, 1852	75	2,764,866
Paterson.....	November 25, 1834.....	17	500,000
Ramapo.....	October 24, 1850	16	470,000

PENNSYLVANIA.

Names of railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in operation, including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Alleghany and Portage	November 30, 1853....	28	\$700,000
Alleghany Valley	43	136	1,300,000
Beaver Meadow	October 31, 1837	26	150,000
Beaver Meadow and Branches.....	December 20, 1837	12	100,000
Blairsville Branch	November 25, 1851....	3	60,000
Buffalo and Conhocton.....	January 1, 1855.....	80	2,400,000
Carbondale and Honesdale.....	December 31, 1853	21	600,000
Cattawissa, Williamsport, and Elmira	November 1, 1854.....	96	4,000,000
Chesnut Hill and Doylestown....	December 18, 1852	15	300,000
Chester Valley	10	13	300,000
Cobb's Gap.....	45
Columbia.....	December 31, 1846	38	800,000
Corning and Blossburg.....	December 15, 1840	45	1,000,000
Cumberland Valley	November 14, 1840....	77	1,206,822
Danville and Pottsville	October 16, 1832	44	900,000
Danville and Shamokin	20
Dauphin and Susquehanna.....	February 1, 1854.....	59	1,000,000
Erie and Ashtabula	November 30, 1852....	40	1,200,000
Franklin	October 10, 1840	22	500,000
Germantown Branch	December 5, 1840	6	200,000
Harrisburg and Lancaster	December 23, 1835	25	1,702,523
Hazleton and Lehigh	November 6, 1840....	10	80,000
Hempfield	82
Holidaysburg Branch	6
Iron	October 31, 1852	25	500,000
Lackawanna and Western.....	58	53	1,500,000
Lebanon Valley	56
Lehigh and Susquehanna.....	December 1, 1840	20	1,250,000
Little Schuylkill.....	November 2, 1831....	20	326,500
Little Schuylkill & Susquehanna.....	July 4, 1854.....	114	3,000,000
Lykens Valley.....	December 31, 1837	16	170,000
Mahoning and Wisconsin.....	November 30, 1850....	17	180,000
Mauch Chunk and Branches.....	June 17, 1827.....	25	300,000
Mill Creek	October 31, 1832	9	180,000
Mine Hill.....	December 26, 1836	12	896,117
Northern Central.....	January 1, 1855.....	138	4,000,000
Mount Carbon	November 24, 1830....	7	70,000
Nesquehoning	December 19, 1849	5	50,000
Norristown, Doylestown, and New Hope	28
North east	January 1, 1852.....	23	500,000
North Pennsylvania	February 6, 1854.....	88	14,000,000
Pennsylvania	November 13, 1852....	228	7,978,000
Philadelphia City	November 21, 1840....	6	300,000
Philadelphia and Columbia.....	September 20, 1832....	82	4,204,969
Philadelphia, Germantown, and Norristown.....	November 20, 1832....	17	550,000
Philadelphia and Reading	December 31, 1840	92	16,649,515
Philadelphia and Sunbury.....	August 25, 1853.....	60	1,500,000
Philadelphia and Trenton.....	October 23, 1833	50	500,000
Philadelphia and Westchester.....	December 26, 1850	21	600,000
Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore.....	July 19, 1837.....	98	6,421,229
Pine Grove	November 16, 1832....	4	40,000
Pittsburg and Buffalo.....	160
Pittsburg and Connellsville.....	150
Pittsburg and Erie	141
Pittsburg and Steubenville	35
Pottsville and Sunbury	40

Names of railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in Miles in operation, course including of con- branches. struct'n.		Cost.
Room Run	October 31, 1836	6	..	\$40,960
Schuylkill	December 31, 1832	13	..	200,000
Schuylkill Valley and Branches	November 30, 1832	25	..	300,000
Scranton and Bloomsburg	45
Strasburg	35
Sunbury and Erie	269
Sunbury and Shamokin	20
Susquehanna	52
Trenton Branch	December 24, 1840	6	..	180,000
Trivorton and Mahonoy	November 23, 1850	15	..	400,000
Valley	20
Westchester	October 22, 1850	9	..	250,000
York and Wrightsville	December 19, 1840	13	..	400,000
DELAWARE.				
Delaware	43
Newcastle and Frenchtown	September 20, 1832	16	..	600,000
MARYLAND.				
Annapolis and Elkridge	December 31, 1846	21	..	400,000
Baltimore and Ohio	491	30	2,254,323
VIRGINIA.				
Alexandria, Loudon, and Hamp- shire	166
Alexandria and Orange	82	93	2,000,000
Appamatox	December 31, 1850	9	..	200,000
Blue Ridge	8	9	200,000
Central	105	90	2,000,000
Chesterfield	July 6, 1832	12	..	150,000
Clarksville and Ridgeway	25
Clover Hill	August 15, 1852	15	..	300,000
Covington and Ohio	228
Cumberland Gap	115
Fredricksburg and Gordonsville	38
Greenfield and Roanoke	November 30, 1833	21	..	284,438
Manassas Gap	60	90	1,200,000
New River	77
Norfolk and Petersburg	80
Petersburg and Weldon	October 31, 1823	60	..	946,721
Richmond and Danville	95	51	2,000,000
Richmond and Petersburg	November 24, 1840	40	..	875,405
Richmond, Fredricksburg, and Po- tomac	December 30, 1840	76	..	1,509,271
Richmond and York River	42
Seaboard and Roanoke	November 16, 1853	95	..	2,000,000
South Side	January 1, 1855	130	..	2,500,000
Tuckahoe and James River	November 30, 1854	5	..	100,000
Winchester and Potomac	November 24, 1836	32	..	400,415
NORTH CAROLINA.				
Gaston and Raleigh	December 31, 1840	87	..	1,606,000
North Carolina	50	173	1,000,000
Roanoke Valley	January 1, 1855	22	..	400,000
Wilmington and Raleigh	60	70	1,341,213
Wilmington and Weldon	November 30, 1850	162	..	2,500,000
SOUTH CAROLINA.				
Blue Ridge	182
Charlotte and South Carolina	July 16, 1852	112	..	983,415
Cheraw and Darlington	10	29	100,000
Greenville and Columbia	103	61	2,000,000

Names of railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in operation.	Miles in course including of branches.	Cost.
King's Mountain	October 31, 1851	25	..	\$500,000
Laurens	8	23	100,000
North East	31	71	300,000
South Carolina	October 2, 1833	241	..	5,963,678
Spartanburg and Union	66
Wilmington and Manchester	July 1, 1854	162	..	3,500,000

GEORGIA.

Atlanta and La Grange	June 1, 1854	87	..	2,000,000
Athens Branch	November 30, 1840	39	..	800,000
Brunswick and Florida	130
Burke	15	38	200,000
Central	November 25, 1843	190	..	3,355,872
Eatonton	22
Georgia	October 13, 1843	192	..	3,100,000
Macon and Weston	December 26, 1844	103	..	1,279,000
Milledgeville	November 24, 1851	18	..	350,000
Muscogee	December 1, 1853	71	..	1,500,000
Rome	October 23, 1850	18	..	200,000
Savannah and Albany	191
Savannah Gulf	53
South Western	December 20, 1851	57	..	1,000,000
Western and Atlantic	November 19, 1850	140	..	3,000,000
Wilkes	18

FLORIDA.

St. Joseph's	December 31, 1847	28	..	130,000
Tallahassee and St. Marks	November 30, 1846	26	..	120,000

ALABAMA.

Alabama and Mississippi	90
Girard and Mobile	22	198	400,000
Memphis and Charlestown	64	121	1,300,000
Montgomery and West Point	December 31, 1851	89	..	1,286,208
Tennessee and Selma	250
Tuscumbia and Decatur	November 30, 1832	46	..	1,000,000

MISSISSIPPI.

Central	22	161	400,000
Mississippi, Natchez, and Malcolm	30
Mississippi and Tennessee	97
Mobile and Ohio	150	384	3,000,000
Raymond	December 31, 1851	7	..	120,000
Vicksburg, Jackson, and Brandon	November 30, 1846	60	..	1,000,000
Vicksburg, Shreveport, and Texas	83

LOUISIANA.

Carrollton	December 30, 1831	6	..	60,000
Clinton and Port Hudson	November 30, 1850	24	..	200,000
Lake Ponchartrain	April 10, 1831	6	..	60,000
Mexican Gulf	October 31, 1850	27	..	175,000
New Orleans, Jackson, & Brandon	173
New Orleans, Opelousas, & Great Western	52	120	600,000
St. Francisville and Woodville	April 15, 1831	28	..	468,000
West Feliciana	December 26, 1848	26	..	168,000

TEXAS.

Harrisburg and Brazos	72
-----------------------------	-------	----	----	-------

TENNESSEE.

Names of railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in		Cost.
		operation,	Miles in course including of en- braught's struc- ture.	
Alabama and Tennessee.....		55	112	\$1,200,000
Atlanta and La Grange.....	December 31, 1852....	40	..	800,000
Blue Ridge.....		..	194	..
Chatanooga and Nashville.....	January 8, 1854.....	162	..	2,636,610
Chatanooga and Cleveland.....		..	50	..
East Tennessee and Georgia.....		81	29	1,800,000
East Tennessee and Virginia.....		134	71	3,000,000
Henderson and Nashville.....		45	55	1,000,000
Memphis and La Grange.....		..	50	..
Memphis and Ohio.....		..	85	..
Nashville and Mississippi.....		..	150	..
Raeburn Gap.....		..	170	..

KENTUCKY.

KENTUCKY.			
Lexington and Big Sandy	100
Lexington and Covington	November 30, 1851 ..	97	3,169,082
Lexington and Danville	14	300,000
Lexington and Frankfort	November 20, 1840 ..	28	551,226
Lexington and Maysville	44	800,000
Louisville and Chatanoga	180
Louisville and Danville	66
Louisville and Frankfort	November 1, 1851 ..	45	1,358,764
Louisville and Newport	73
Maysville and Danville	110

OHIO.

Akron Branch		14	19	200,000
Belfontaine and Indiana.....	June 30, 1853	118	..	2,000,000
Central	October 25, 1854	141	..	3,000,000
Cincinnati, Hamilton, and Dayton.....	September 30, 1851...	60	..	2,145,555
Cincinnati and Marietta.....		75	125	1,500,000
Cincinnati and St. Louis.....		20	280	400,000
Cincinnati, Union, & Fort Wayne.....	January 1, 1854.....	65	..	1,500,000
Cincinnati and Xenia	50
Cincinnati, Zanesville, & Cleveland.....		250	50	5,000,000
Cleveland and Columbus	April 1, 1851	135	..	3,000,000
Cleveland, Coshocton, and Zanesville	180
Cleveland and Erie.....	November 23, 1852	95	..	2,000,000
Cleveland and Mahanoy.....		..	103
Cleveland and Pittsburgh.....	March 31, 1854.....	99	..	3,500,000
Cleveland and Toledo.....	January 1, 1855.....	221	..	5,242,245
Columbus and Lake Erie.....	December 31, 1852 ..	61	..	1,200,000
Columbus and Newark.....	October 25, 1852	36	..	720,000
Columbus, Piqua, and Indiana.....	December 31, 1854	102	..	2,000,000
Columbus and Springfield	December 16, 1852 ...	19	..	1,300,000
Columbus and Wheeling		86	64	2,000,000
Columbus and Xenia	February 28, 1850.....	55	..	1,194,074
Dayton and Miami	May 25, 1854	46	..	1,000,000
Dayton and Michigan.....		20	115	400,000
Dayton and Richmond.....	December 8, 1852	52	..	1,000,000
Dayton and Springfield	November 24, 1851 ...	16	..	200,000
Dayton and Western.....	December 16, 1853 ..	36	..	720,000
Dayton, Xenia, and Belpre		42	126	800,000
Eaton and Piqua	35
Greenfield and Miami.....	May 25, 1854	46	..	900,000
Hamilton, Eaton, and Richmond.....	May 31, 1853	115	..	713,103
Ironton	November 13, 1852	20	..	400,000
Junction	98
Little Miami	October 24, 1847	93	..	1,508,402
Mad River and Lake Erie	December 10, 1847 ...	156	..	4,424,681

Names of railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in operation, course including of con-branches, struct'n.	Miles in operation, course including of con-branches, struct'n.	Cost.
Newark and Zanesville	30
Ohio and Indiana	October 28, 1854	132	..	2,700,000
Ohio and Pennsylvania	May 16, 1853	187	..	5,830,141
Pittsburg and Steubenville	25	17	500,000
Sandusky, Mansfield, & Newark	December 31, 1852 ...	116	..	3,000,000
Scioto and Hocking Valley	46	72	1,00, 000
Springfield and Mansfield	72
Springfield, Mount Vernon, and Pittsburg	50	62	1,000,000
Springfield and Xenia	November 19, 1852 ...	20	..	4,00,000
Steubenville and Indiana	January 1, 1855	117	..	3,000,000
Tiffin and Fort Wayne	110
Troy and Michigan	20	..	400,000
Western	73
INDIANA.				
Central	September 30, 1853 ...	72	..	1,500,000
Cincinnati, Logansport, & Chicago	98	42	2,000,000
Cincinnati, Peru, and Chicago	30	173	600,000
Evansville and Terre Haute	27	84	540,000
Fort Wayne, Cambridge, and Cincinnati	138
Fort Wayne and Chicago	25	120	500,000
Fort Wayne and Cincinnati	114
Fort Wayne and Muncie	60
Fort Wayne and Sandusky	18
Fort Wayne, Union, & Cincinnati	66
Indiana and Illinois Central	150
Indianapolis and Belfontaine	July 31, 1853	83	..	1,800,000
Indianapolis and Cincinnati	November 14, 1853 ...	91	..	2,144,904
Indianapolis, Evansville, & Union	225
Indianapolis and Gosport	43
Indianapolis and Lafayette	November 30, 1852 ...	62	..	1,500,000
Indianapolis and Laurenceburg	63	28	1,200,000
Indianapolis, Madison, and Peru	March 4, 1854	159	..	3,000,000
Indianapolis and Terre Haute	February 16, 1852 ...	73	..	1,370,458
Indianapolis and Vincennes	110
Indianapolis and Toledo	84
Jeffersonville and Columbus	October 9, 1852	66	..	1,500,000
Junction	86
Logansport and Pacific	40	32	800,000
Logansport and Toledo	163
Marion and Mississinawa	84
Martinsville and Franklin	December 24, 1852 ...	25	..	500,000
New Albany, Louisville, and Sandusky	117
New Albany and Salem	June 30, 1854	288	..	6,000,000
Ohio and Mississippi	136	200	3,000,000
Richmond and Newcastle	January 1, 1855	28	..	600,000
Shelbyville and Columbus	December 27, 1853 ...	24	..	500,000
Shelbyville and Edinburgh	October 24, 1850	16	..	300,000
Shelbyville and Knightstown	December 16, 1851 ...	27	..	500,000
Shelbyville and Rushville	November 19, 1851 ...	20	..	400,000
South Western	120
Vincennes and Paducah	100
Wabash Valley	200
Fort Wayne and Crawfordsville	51
ILLINOIS.				
Alton and Chicago	30	270	600,000
Alton and Jacksonville	65
Alton and New Albany	175

Names of railways.	When opened throughout.	Miles in operation, course including of con-	Miles in branches, struct'n.	Cost.
Alton and Springfield.....	September 9, 1852....	68	..	1,600,000
Alton and Terre Haute.....	December 31, 1854....	170	..	3,400,000
Atlantic and Mississippi.....	170
Aurora Branch.....	36	19	720,000
Belleville and Illinoistown.....	September 30, 1854....	14	..	300,000
Central.....	January 1, 1855.....	731	..	15,000,000
Chicago and Aurora.....	October 15, 1853.....	160	..	3,000,000
Chicago and Dixon.....	July 1, 1854.....	232	..	4,000,000
Chicago and Galena Air Line.....	75	16	1,500,000
Chicago and Galena Union.....	142	68	4,143,656
Chicago and Milwaukee.....	December 31, 1854....	90	..	2,000,000
Chicago and Mississippi.....	August 5, 1854.....	220	..	4,000,000
Chicago and Rock Island.....	February 22, 1854....	181	..	4,000,000
Chicago and St. Charles.....	10	150	400,000
Illinois and Wisconsin.....	October 31, 1854.....	89	..	2,000,000
Jackson and Carrollton.....	68
Lake Erie.....	95
Military Tract.....	July 31, 1854.....	84	..	2,000,000
Northern Cross—E. Extension.....	December 1, 1854....	100	..	2,000,000
Northern Cross—W. Extension.....	January 1, 1855.....	120	..	2,500,000
O'Fallon and Coal Bluff.....	December 1, 1840....	7	..	140,000
Peoria and Bureau Valley.....	January 1, 1855.....	50	..	1,000,000
Peoria, Knoxville, and Burlington.....	110
Peoria and Oquaka.....	June 30 1854.....	90	..	2,000,000
Peoria and Warsaw.....	120
Springfield and Bloomington.....	October 1, 1853.....	60	..	1,200,000
St. Charles Branch.....	November 26, 1850....	8	..	160,000
Warsaw, Rock Island, and Port Byron.....	130
MISSOURI.				
Hannibal and St. Joseph.....	210
Iron Mountain.....	75
North Missouri.....	228
Pacific (Kansas).....	50	135	1,000,000
Pacific (South West).....	280
St. Louis and St. Charles.....	35
MICHIGAN.				
Central.....	December 31, 1851....	228	..	9,951,999
Detroit and Pontiac.....	November 30, 1840....	25	..	300,000
Southern.....	315	150	9,818,398
WISCONSIN.				
Beloit and Madison.....	47
Central.....	150
Fond du Lac.....	75
Green Bay, Milwaukee, & Chicago.....	30	195	600,000
Janesville and Madison.....	January 1, 1855....	35	..	700,000
Kenosha and Beloit.....	50
La Crosse.....	October 31, 1854.....	18	..	400,000
Milwaukee and Mississippi.....	103	89	2,000,000
Milwaukee and Watertown.....	January 1, 1855.....	50	..	1,000,000
Southern.....	98
Rock River Valley Union.....	December 31, 1853....	86	..	1,800,000
IOWA.				
Burlington and Missouri.....	220	400,000
Central.....	50	250	1,000,000
Dubuque and Keokuck.....	180
Mississippi and Missouri.....	65	585	1,300,000

RECAPITULATION.

States.	No. of railways.	Miles in opera- tion.	Miles in course of construc'n.	Cost.
Maine.....	12	456	50	\$15,325,656
New Hampshire.....	16	512	34	15,860,940
Vermont.....	7	410	59	17,698,836
Massachusetts.....	39	1,293	36	59,167,781
Rhode Island.....	1	50	..	2,614,484
Connecticut.....	12	638	51	25,224,191
New York.....	32	2,664	801	110,908,469
New Jersey.....	11	437	..	13,840,030
Pennsylvania.....	69	1,992	1,406	85,935,675
Delaware.....	2	16	43	600,000
Maryland.....	2	512	30	2,654,338
Virginia.....	24	845	1,104	16,666,250
North Carolina.....	5	381	243	6,847,213
South Carolina.....	10	692	382	13,447,093
Georgia.....	16	930	452	16,894,872
Florida.....	2	54	..	250,000
Alabama.....	6	221	659	3,986,208
Mississippi.....	7	239	755	4,540,000
Louisiana.....	8	169	293	1,731,000
Texas.....	1	..	72
Tennessee.....	12	517	946	10,436,610
Kentucky.....	10	228	572	6,179,072
Missouri.....	6	50	963	1,000,000
Ohio.....	47	2,997	1,631	67,798,201
Indiana.....	39	1,453	2,608	30,255,362
Illinois.....	31	2,767	1,456	57,663,656
Michigan.....	3	568	150	20,070,397
Wisconsin.....	11	322	707	6,500,000
Iowa.....	4	115	1,235	2,700,000
Total.....	445	21,528	16,738	\$616,766,333

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

FREE COLORED POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following tables, compiled from the United States Census Returns for the *Evening Bulletin*, show the number of free colored persons in all the States at different periods from 1790 to 1850, together with the per centage of progress in each State:—

FREE COLORED IN EACH STATE AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

NEW ENGLAND STATES.

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Maine.....	538	818	969	929	1,190	1,355	1,356
New Hampshire.....	630	856	970	786	604	539	529
Vermont.....	255	557	750	903	881	730	718
Massachusetts.....	5,463	6,452	6,737	6,740	7,048	8,669	9,064
R. Island.....	3,469	3,304	3,609	3,554	3,561	3,238	3,670
Connecticut.....	2,801	5,330	6,453	7,844	8,047	8,105	7,693

Total	13,156	17,317	19,488	20,756	21,331	22,634	23,021
-------------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------

MIDDLE STATES.

New York.....	4,654	10,374	25,333	29,279	44,870	50,027	49,069
New Jersey.....	2,762	4,402	7,843	12,460	18,303	21,044	23,310
Pennsylvania.....	6,537	14,661	22,492	30,202	37,930	47,854	53,626
Delaware.....	3,899	8,268	13,136	12,958	15,955	16,919	18,073

Total	17,852	37,605	68,804	84,899	116,958	135,844	144,573
-------------	--------	--------	--------	--------	---------	---------	---------

WESTERN FREE STATES.

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Ohio	837	1,899	4,723	9,568	17,342	25,279
Indiana	163	393	1,230	3,629	7,165	11,262
Illinois	613	457	1,637	3,598	5,436
Michigan	120	174	261	707	2,583
Wisconsin	185	635
Iowa	172	333
Total	1,000	3,025	6,584	15,095	29,169	45,528

SOUTHERN SLAVE STATES.

Maryland	8,043	19,587	33,927	39,730	52,938	62,078	74,723
District of Columbia	783	2,549	4,048	6,152	8,361	10,059
Virginia	12,766	20,124	30,570	36,889	47,348	49,852	54,333
North Carolina	4,975	7,043	10,266	14,612	19,543	22,732	27,463
South Carolina	1,801	3,185	4,554	6,826	7,921	8,276	8,970
Georgia	398	1,019	1,801	1,763	2,486	2,753	2,931
Florida	844	817	932
Alabama	571	1,572	2,039	2,265
Mississippi	182	240	458	519	1,366	930
Louisiana	7,585	10,476	16,710	25,502	17,462
Total	27,983	51,923	91,492	115,373	156,033	183,976	200,058

WESTERN SLAVE STATES.

Kentucky	114	741	1,713	2,759	4,917	7,317	10,011
Missouri	607	347	569	1,574	2,618
Arkansas	59	141	465	608
Tennessee	361	309	1,317	2,727	4,555	5,524	6,422
Total	475	1,050	3,637	5,892	10,182	14,880	19,659

PER CENTAGE OF PROGRESS OF THE FREE COLORED POPULATION IN EACH STATE.

	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Maine	52.04	18.45	decr.	28.09	13.86	0.07
New Hampshire	35.87	18.31	decr.	decr.	decr.	decr.
Vermont	118.43	34.64	20.40	decr.	decr.	decr.
Massachusetts	15.10	4.41	0.04	4.56	22.90	4.55
Rhode Island	decr.	9.23	decr.	0.19	decr.	13.34
Connecticut	90.28	21.06	21.55	2.58	0.72	decr.
New York	122.90	144.19	15.57	53.24	11.49	decr.
New Jersey	59.37	78.16	58.86	56.89	14.97	13.14
Pennsylvania	122.74	54.46	34.27	25.58	26.16	12.06
Delaware	112.05	58.87	decr.	22.35	6.71	6.82
Maryland	143.52	73.21	17.10	33.24	17.26	20.36
District of Columbia	225.54	58.80	51.97	35.90	20.30
Virginia	57.63	51.90	20.67	28.35	5.28	8.98
North Carolina	41.56	45.76	42.33	33.74	16.31	20.81
South Carolina	76.84	42.98	49.89	16.04	4.48	8.26
Georgia	156.03	76.74	decr.	41.00	10.74	6.46
Florida	decr.	14.07
Alabama	175.30	29.70	11.08
Mississippi	31.86	90.83	13.31	163.19	decr.
Louisiana	38.11	59.50	52.61	decr.
Arkansas	138.98	229.78	30.75
Tennessee	326.21	107.06	67.03	21.27	16.25
Kentucky	550.00	131.17	61.06	78.21	48.81	36.81
Missouri	decr.	63.97	176.62	66.32
Illinois	decr.	258.20	119.79	51.08
Indiana	141.10	212.97	195.04	97.43	57.55
Ohio	463.60	148.70	102.58	81.25	45.76
Michigan	45.00	50.00	170.88	265.34
Wisconsin	243.24
Iowa	93.60

PROGRESSIVE INCREASE OF FREE COLORED IN ALL THE STATES.

		Decennial increase.	
1790	59,466		
1800	108,395	48,929	or 82.28 per cent.
1810	186,446	78,051	72.00 "
1820	233,524	47,078	25.25 "
1830	319,599	86,075	36.86 "
1840	386,303	66,804	20.87 "
1850	434,495	48,192	12.47 "

FREE COLORED IN ALL THE STATES AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

Years.	Free States.	Slave States.	Total.
1790.....	31,008	28,453	59,466
1800.....	75,010	33,385	108,395
1810.....	125,244	61,202	186,446
1820.....	151,969	81,555	233,524
1830.....	154,228	165,371	319,599
1840.....	187,646	198,657	386,303
1850.....	314,371	220,124	434,495

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

IRON MINES, AND IRON TRADE OF OHIO AND CINCINNATI.

The production and manufacture of iron is of immense importance to any country or State. It is especially important that iron mines should be near any large town, like Philadelphia, Cincinnati, or St. Louis, which must depend chiefly on a trade with the interior—always largely increased by a capacity to manufacture iron articles of all sorts. Of the great advantage Cincinnati has derived from this source, we gave one example, in our last number but one, in the manufacture of marbled mantels by Horton and Macy.

We shall not exaggerate when we say that in Cincinnati and its suburbs, there are not less than *sixty iron factories* of the largest sort—which, with their dependent work-shops, give employment to full *five thousand operatives*.

This immense development of the iron manufacture has arisen chiefly from the nearness and excellence of the Ohio Iron Mines. This fact also insures the continuance and extension of this kind of industry far beyond its present limits. It is also quite sure to result in raising up large towns, in the mineral region, where coal, iron, and stone, lie contiguous to each other. We have an example of this in the rapid growth of Ironton, which is only one of the many towns which will grow up to magnitude and prosperity in the same region, as time and capital develop the mineral resources of that section. As the iron business has risen to so much importance, and is so intimately connected with railroad traffic, it may be interesting to give an outline of the iron mines and iron business of Ohio.

The iron ore of Ohio is found almost entirely east of the Scioto, and occasionally in the form of bog ore, in the north. The principal depositories are in the counties of Adams, Scioto, Lawrence, Jackson, Vinton, Hocking, Gallia, Athens, Muskingum, Licking, and in the same geological section continued to the lake. The *furnaces* are found almost entirely in Adams, Scioto, Lawrence, Jackson, and Gallia. One has recently been built in Hocking, and one on the edge of Athens.

The iron works and iron produce of Ohio are:—

FIG IRON.

Furnaces.....	35
Tons of iron ore used	140,610
Tons of pig-iron made	52,658
Bushels of coal consumed.....	605,000
Bushels of coke and charcoal.....	5,428,800
Operatives employed.....	2,415
Capital invested.....	\$1,600,000
Value of products in 1853.....	2,000,000

In the production of pig-iron Ohio is the *second* State in the Union, being next to Pennsylvania. Pennsylvania produces *half* the pig-iron of the United States, and Ohio about *one-tenth*.

IRON CASTINGS.

Factories.....	183
Pig-metal, iron, and ore used	41,000
Castings made	38,000
Coal consumed.....	840,000
Coke and charcoal.....	355,120
Operatives employed.....	2,758
Capital employed.....	\$2,000,000
Value of products.....	3,200,000

WROUGHT IRON.

Factories.....	11
Pig metal used.....	13,675
Blooms	2,900
Coal consumed.....	600,000
Coke and charcoal.....	466,900
Operatives employed.....	708
Wrought iron produced.....	14,416
Capital invested.....	\$700,000
Value of products.....	1,500,000

In the manufacture of castings Ohio is the third State; and in wrought iron the sixth. The establishments for the manufacture of castings are one-seventh in number of those in the Union. The following general view will give the relative standing of the principal States in the manufacture of iron:—

	Iron works.	Value of products.
Pennsylvania	631	\$20,327,000
New York	401	7,941,000
Ohio.....	229	6,700,000
Virginia	122	2,450,000
New Jersey	108	1,975,000
Tennessee	81	1,610,000

These States produce more than two-thirds the iron ore and iron manufactures of the United States. Both Tennessee and Kentucky are destined to produce and manufacture an immense amount of iron; but at present Ohio is much ahead in that department of industry, and has raw material to supply her manufactures for generations to come. It is destined to enter very largely into the business and construction of railroads. It is a very extraordinary thing that, in view of the very great superiority of American iron rails in wear, that our railroad companies have not obtained more at home. The system of buying iron for bonds will prove a very bad one, if it diverts the support which ought to have been given to American industry into foreign channels. We undertake to say, that if the English did not sell their iron for bonds on a very long credit, they would not have been able to sell one-fifth the amount which has been brought to this country.

Having given an aggregate view of Ohio iron manufactures, it may be well to note its growth. This is quite extraordinary. The comparisons of results, under the censuses of 1840 and 1850, were—

	1840.	1850.
Iron works	92	229
Operatives	2,581	5,881
Value of products.....	\$3,421,000	\$6,700,000

This comparison shows that, in the aggregate, the iron business of Ohio increased one hundred per cent in ten years. From the aspects of business in the last three years, we may safely anticipate that it will increase yet more rapidly in time to come.

Looking specially to Cincinnati, we find here an immense and rapidly increasing iron manufacture. As the pig metal and bloom brought to Cincinnati, with much of the iron bar, is used in various manufactures, the annual imports of iron from the iron region is a fair test of the progress of iron manufacture and consumption. Here we extract the following return of iron imports into Cincinnati from the *Price Current*:

	1848-9.	1852-3.
Iron.....tons	1,768	14,124
Iron.....pieces	187,864	294,001
Iron.....bundles	29,889	66,131
Iron, pigs.....tons	15,602	80,171

We then find that in the short space of four years the import and manufacture of iron in Cincinnati has increased at least one hundred and fifty per cent. We discover further, that while, at the present time, about 55,000 tons of iron are produced in Ohio, 44,000 tons are imported into Cincinnati. A part of this import comes from Kentucky, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee; but much the larger part from Ohio. It is, therefore, very evident that Cincinnati is the great market and manufacture for Ohio iron; and indeed for that of upper Kentucky. At the very point in the Ohio Valley, which is left out of the coal and iron seams—as if to depend solely on agricultural products—she has, by virtue of steam communication and her own enterprise, become the very best point, and actual center of all those branches of industry which depend upon coal and iron to develop. She has put her long arms into every mine and every granary, supplying herself with material and food, which genius, enterprise, and industry have converted into the elements of wealth and prosperity.—*Railroad Record.*

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

PAST AND PRESENT POSITION OF THE MERCHANT.

The Hon. CHARLES SUMNER, United States Senator of Massachusetts, by invitation of the Mercantile Library Association of Boston, delivered on the evening of the 13th of November, 1854, an introductory address to one of the annual courses of lectures of that Association. The address gives Mr. Sumner's views in regard to the "*Position and Duties of the Merchant*," but is mainly devoted to "the career of a remarkable man (Granville Sharp) whose simple life, beginning as the apprentice to a linen draper, and never getting beyond a clerkship, shows what may be accomplished by faithful humble labors, and reveals precisely those qualities which, in this age, are needed to crown the character of the Good Merchant."

In the paragraphs we quote below, "we do not tread on forbidden ground;" but give a few passages of the address that will interest the mercantile class "in" and "out of Boston." We quote the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth pages of Mr. Sumner's scholarly address as follows:—

"Every man owes a debt to his profession," was a saying of Lord Bacon, repeated by his cotemporary and rival, Lord Coke. But it does not tell the whole truth. It restrains, within the narrow circle of a profession, obligations which are broad and universal as humanity. Rather should it be said that every man owes a debt to mankind. In determining the debt of the merchant, we must first appreciate his actual position in the social system; and here let us glance at history.

At the dawn of modern times trade was unknown. There was nothing then like a policy of insurance, a bank, a bill of exchange, or even a promissory note. The term "chattels," so comprehensive in its present application, yet when considered in its derivation from the Latin *catalla*, cattle, reveals the narrow inventory of personal property in those days, when "two hundred sheep" were paid by a pious Countess of Anjou for a coveted volume of homilies. The places of honor and power were then occupied by men who had distinguished themselves by the sword, and were known under the various names of knight, baron, count, or—highest of all—Duke, *Dux*, the leader in war.

Under these influences the feudal system was organized, with its hierarchy of ranks, in mutual relations of dependence and protection; and society for a while rested in its shadow. The steel-clad chiefs, who enjoyed power, had a corresponding responsi-

bility ; and the mingled gallantry and gentleness of chivalry often controlled the iron hand. It was the dukes who led the forces ; it was the counts or earls who placed themselves at the head of their respective counties ; it was the knights who went forth to do battle with danger, in whatever form, whether from robbers or wild beasts. It was the barons at Runnymede—there was no merchant there—who extorted from King John that Magna Charta which laid the corner-stone of English and American liberty.

In America feudalism never prevailed, and our revolution severed the only cord by which we were connected with this ancient system. It was fit that the Congress which performed this memorable act should have for its President a merchant. It was fit that, in promulgating the Declaration of Independence, by which, in the face of kings, princes, and nobles, the new era was inaugurated, the education of the counting-house should flaunt conspicuously in the broad and clerkly signature of John Hancock. Our fathers "bultied wiser than they knew ;" and these things are typical of the social change then taking place. And by yet another act, fresh in your recollection, and of peculiar interest to this assembly, has our country borne the same testimony. A distinguished merchant of Boston, who has ascended through all the gradations of trade, honored always for his private virtues as well as public abilities—I may mention the name of Abbott Lawrence—has been sent to the Court of St. James as the ambassador of our republic, and with that proud commission, higher than any patent of nobility, has taken precedence of the nobles of that ancient realm. In this circumstance I see the triumph of personal merit, but still more, the consummation of a new epoch.

Yes, sir ! say what you will, this is the day of the merchant. As in the early ages, war was the great concern of society, and the very pivot of power, so is trade now ; and as the feudal chiefs were the "notables" placed at the very top of their time, so are the merchants now. All things attest the change. War, which was once the universal business, is now confined to a few ; once a daily terror, it is now the accident of an age. Not for adventures of the sword, but for trade do men descend upon the sea in ships, and traverse broad continents on iron pathways. Not for protection against violence, but for trade, do men come together in cities and rear the marvelous superstructures of social order. If they go abroad, or if they stay at home, it is trade that controls them, without distinction of persons. And here in our country every man is a trader. The physician trades his benevolent care ; the lawyer trades his ingenious tongue ; the clergyman trades his prayers. And trade summons from the quarry the choicest marble and granite to build its capacious homes, and now, in our own city, displays warehouses which outdo the baronial castle, and salesrooms which outdo the ducal palace. With these magnificent appliances, the relations of dependence and protection, which marked the early feudalism, are reproduced in the more comprehensive feudalism of trade. Even now there are European bankers who vie in power with the dukes and princes of other days, and there are traffickers everywhere, whose title comes from the ledger and not the sword, fit successors to counts, barons, and knights. As the feudal chief allocated to himself and his followers the soil, which was the prize of his strong arm, so now the merchant, with a grasp more subtle and reaching, allocates to himself and followers, ranging through multitudinous degrees of dependence, all the spoils of every land, triumphantly won by trade. I would not press this parallel too far, but, at this moment, especially in our country, the merchant, more than any other character, stands in the very boots of the feudal chief. Of all pursuits or relations, his is now the most extensive and formidable, making all others its tributaries, and bending at times even the lawyer and the clergyman to be its dependent stipendiaries.

Such in our social system is the merchant ; and on this precise and incontrovertible statement I found his duties. Wealth, power, and influence are not for self-indulgence merely, and just according to their extent are the obligations to others which they impose. If, by the rule of increase, to him that hath is given, so in the same degree new duties are superadded ; nor can any man escape from their behests. If the merchant be in reality our feudal lord, he must render feudal service ; if he be our modern knight, he must do knightly deeds ; if he be the baron of our day, let him maintain baronial charity to the humble—ay, sir, and baronial courage against tyrannical wrong, in whatsoever form it may assume. But even if I err in attributing to him this peculiar position, I do not err in attributing to him these duties ; for his influence is surely great, and he is at least a man bound by his simple manhood to regard nothing human as foreign to his heart.

 THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Female Prose Writers of America*. With Portraits, Biographical Notices, and Specimens of their Writings. By JOHN S. HART, LL. D. New Edition, revised and enlarged. 8vo., pp. 536. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler.

A most interesting addition to our American literature. The construction of the work is similar in plan to that of "Read's Female Poets of America," published by the same enterprising house, and which passed through four editions. The book contains sketches of the lives of some sixty or more female prose writers, with selections from their writings; and the learned author has aimed to select such passages as are characteristic of the different styles of each, and at the same time to afford a pleasing variety. The sketches—with the exception of a delightful bit of autobiography by Mrs. Gilman, and an equally interesting one by Mrs. Leslie—have been prepared by the author from original sources and the best printed authorities. The biographies of authors now living, in the present, which is the second edition of the work, have been revised and brought up to the period of publication, and several new names added, among which is that of Miss Ellen Louise Chandler, the authoress of the successful book entitled "This, That, and the Other," which has lately passed through two editions. Miss C. is but nineteen years of age, and has evinced a very extraordinary literary ability. The mechanical execution of this volume is most elegant; the engravings are superior.

- 2.—*The Catholic History of North America*. Five Discourses. To which are added Two Discourses on the Relations of Ireland to America. By THOMAS D'ARCY MCGEE, author of "The Reformation in Ireland," "Irish Settlers in America," &c. 12mo., pp. 339. Boston: Patrick Donahoe.

This volume contains five lectures on the history of America, and two on the relations of Ireland and America, which were originally delivered in whole or part at New York, Boston, Cincinnati, Washington, and Baltimore. The object of the five lectures on American history is succinctly stated in the first lecture—it is to prove that the discovery and exploration of America were Catholic enterprises, undertaken by Catholics with Catholic motives; that the only systematic attempts to civilize and Christianize the aborigines were made by Catholic missionaries; and, finally, that our independence was, in a great degree, established by Catholic blood, talent, and treasure. Mr. McGee is a young and vigorous writer, and gives authorities, Catholic and Protestant, in support of his positions.

- 3.—*The Rural Wreath; or Life among the Flowers*. Edited by LAURA GREENWOOD. 12mo., pp. 272. Boston: Dayton & Wentworth.

The title of this book is quite attractive, for whatever relates to those beautiful creations springing up around our paths, especially when the season is inviting our attention to them, and the air is filled with their fragrance, we cannot but pause to bestow some thought upon these ministers of the Divine goodness and love. The book before us is suggestive of such thoughts; it breathes pure and elevating sentiments. It contains selections of prose and poetry, upon flowers and the language they speak, and the lessons they convey to the reflecting mind. Books of this description have a tendency to do good. We would recommend this volume, as calculated to improve and elevate, to all persons who would gladly increase the taste of the beautiful and true. The work appears in a fine form, handsomely bound, good type, and worthy of the spirit which pervades its pages.

- 4.—*Oscar; or the Boy who had his own Way*. By WALTER ARMWELL, author of "Clinton," "Boy's Own Guide," &c. With Illustrations. 18mo., pp. 313. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

The "Armwell series of stories," as they are termed, have already earned a wide, and we have no hesitation in saying a deserved popularity. The title of the present story distinctly points the moral. It portrays effectively the career of a bright but headstrong boy. It exhibits graphically and truthfully some of the bad consequences of a wayward and lawless spirit as its chief lessons, intermingled with others of scarcely less importance to the young.

- 5.—*Lecture on the Evidences of Christianity.* Delivered in Philadelphia by a Clergyman of the Protestant Episcopal Church, in the fall and winter of 1853-4. With an Introductory Essay by ALONZO POTTER, D. D., LL. D., Bishop of Pennsylvania. 8vo., pp. 408. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co.

The plan of this series of discourses was projected by Bishop Potter, Rev. Drs. Morton and Stevens of the Episcopal Church, with "special reference to the present exigencies" of the Christian religion, and with a view of meeting the wants of young men of cultivated and thoughtful habits. The collected series of lectures has an introduction from the pen of the Bishop. The subjects that follow, and their authors, are these:—The "Philosophy of Religion," by Rev. A. N. Littlejohn; "Philosophical Scepticism," by Rev. Edwin Harwood; "Miracles," by Rev. Charles Mason; "Immutability of Natural Laws," by Bishop Potter; "Physical Theory of Development," by Dr. Howe; "Ecclesiastical Development," by Dr. T. Atkinson; "Rationalistic Development," by Dr. Samuel Fuller; "Scripture Inspiration," by Dr. Kerfoot; "Analogies between God's World and Word," by Dr. C. M. Butler; "Relation of the Objective and Subjective Factors in Revelation," by Rev. C. Minnegerode; "Modern Necromancy no Argument against the Gospel," by Bishop Burgess; "Socialism," by Dr. A. H. Vinton; "Historical Evidences of Christianity," by Bishop J. H. Hopkins; and the "Internal Evidences of Christianity," by Rev. G. T. Bedell. The subjects are variously treated, and with varied learning and ability, resulting from diversity of character in the different authors. The work forms one of the most beautifully finished volumes of our American press.

- 6.—*History of the Protestant Church in Hungary, from the beginning of the Reformation to 1850, with special reference to Transylvania.* Translated by the Rev. J. CRAIG, D. D., Hamburg. With an Introduction by J. H. Merle D'Aubigne, D. D., author of the "History of the Great Reformation," &c. 12mo., pp. 559. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

The author of this history, according to D'Aubigne, who is regarded as good authority, is a man of enlightened piety, sound judgment, integrity, and faithfulness. The author consulted in the preparation of his history authentic and original sources, and thus sought to place its authenticity on an indisputable basis, and at the same time render it impervious to the shafts of hostile criticism.

- 7.—*Town and Country; or Life at Home and Abroad, Without and Within Us.* By JOHN S. ADAMS. 12mo., pp. 368. Boston: J. Buffrem.

This handsome volume contains upwards of one hundred different articles, including tales, sketches, and poems. The stories are well told, and agreeably enforce some useful moral lesson. The tales "Saved by Kindness," "The Hope of the Fallen," and "The Wine Dealer's Clerk," are worth the price of the volume. The sketches "Giving Publicity to Business," and "Speculation and its Consequences," will interest if not profit our mercantile readers.

- 8.—*Gratitude: an Exposition of the Hundred and Third Psalm.* By Rev. JOHN STEVENSON, author of "The Lord Our Shepherd," "Christ on the Cross," &c. 12mo., pp. 324. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

A very elaborate analysis of the brief and beautiful Psalm, beginning "Bless the Lord, O my soul," &c. The learned and theological author has systematized and elaborated his subject, and if he has not added to the heartfelt gratitude of the "man after God's own heart," he certainly has not detracted from the transcendent excellence of his pious musings.

- 9.—*Jeannie Morrison; or the Discipline of Life.* By the author of "The Pastor's Family." New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

The motto selected by the author of this interesting and instructive story is from Longfellow's beautiful and manly Psalm of Life—a poem that has inspired many a "forlorn and shipwrecked brother" with courage in the discipline of life, and made them "heroes in the strife."

- 10.—*Lexicon of Ladies' Names; with their Floral Emblems.* Containing One Hundred and Thirty-eight Names, with their Significations, &c. A Gift-book for all Seasons. By SARAH C. CARTER. 18mo., pp. 208. Boston: J. Buffrem.

A pretty and pleasantly made up volume, displaying taste and discrimination on the part of the compiler. It is all that its unpretending title indicates.

- 11.—*The Works of Shakspeare*; the Text carefully restored according to the first Editions; with Introductions, Notes, original and selected, and a Life of the Poet. By Rev. H. N. HUDSON, A. M. In eleven volumes. Vol. VII. 18mo., pp. 522. Boston and Cambridge: James Munroe & Co.

The publication of this edition progresses slowly. Nearly a year has elapsed since we had the pleasure of announcing the appearance of the sixth volume. Besides the present (the seventh) we are to have four more, which will, we presume, be completed during the year. This volume contains the tragedy of King Richard III., King Henry VIII., and Troilus and Cressida, with historical, critical, and comprehensive introductions and notes to each, evincing on the part of the erudite editor a deep and thorough knowledge and study of Shakspearian literature. In our judgment, this is in several particulars the most desirable edition of the great dramatist's works, that has been published in this country. The volumes are of convenient size, the type is clear and distinct, and large enough for weak eyes. The volumes match very well with Little, Brown & Co.'s edition of the British Poets, and those who are procuring that collection for their libraries, will not fail to enhance their value and completeness by adding Hudson's edition of Shakspeare's works.

- 12.—*Counsels for the Cottage and the Mansion*. By S. B. EMMONS. 12mo., pp. 288. Boston: L. P. Crown & Co.

This work is divided into two parts—the first contains seventeen chapters upon the Popular Superstitions which have arisen and disturbed the minds of the credulous imagination from time to time. The author endeavors not to denounce them at once, but to explain their nature, investigate their origin, describe their injurious effects upon individuals, and to offer and recommend the necessary means for their banishment. The first part treats upon different delusions, which have in turn operated injuriously upon so many minds, such as the belief in Witchcraft, Necromancy, and Fortune-Telling. The second part treats of Animal Magnetism and that which has more recently absorbed public attention, "The Spirit Mania," including the "rappings and table liftings." The book is well worthy of perusal, fairly written, and is calculated to do good, in exposing some errors which ignorance and superstition have established in our midst, and may arrest many who might otherwise become victims of popular delusion. The volume is pleasantly written, replete with anecdotes and good illustrations.

- 13.—*Marriage and Parentage*; or the Reproductive Element in Man as a Means to his Elevation and Happiness. By HENRY C. WRIGHT. 12mo., pp. 228. Boston: Bela Marsh.

The subjects discussed in this volume are of vast and vital importance to the human race. The work is divided into two parts. In the first the author gives the scientific facts in regard to the function of reproduction, and endeavors to show that parents, alone, are responsible for the organization and constitutional tendencies of their children. In the second, the author considers the laws by which the sexual element should be governed in the marriage relation. It should be read by all who intend to assume the relationship of husband and wife.

- 14.—*The Lands of the Saracen*; or Pictures of Palestine, Asia Minor, Sicily, and Spain. By BAYARD TAYLOR. 12mo., pp. 451. New York: G. P. Putnam.

We noticed in the last number of the *Merchants' Magazine* Mr. Taylor's "Journey to Central Africa," and the peculiar merits of the author. The present volume contains the second portion of the same series of travels, and includes varied pictures of the countries quoted in the title. As before, the author takes us out of the beaten track, and describes the journey from Aleppo to Constantinople—regions rarely seen by tourists. These travels do not flag in interest, and will compare with any which this unrivaled narrator has written.

- 15.—*The Wonderful Mirror*. By the author of "A Visit to the Country," etc. pp. 128. Boston: Crosby & Nichols.

A pretty and ingeniously constructed mirror. The book includes a comedietta, in two acts, which will be interesting to children. We do not sympathize with what appears to be the object of the book, viz.: to inculcate in very young people—children of tender years—the importance of gaining knowledge. Play is better than books for such. These inculcations should be held back a little longer than is oftentimes the case; but we have not space to enter into a dissertation on the matter. The illustrations are very pretty.

- 16.—*A Complete Concordance to the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament* or a Dictionary and Alphabetical Index to the Bible. In two parts. To which is added, a Concordance to the Books called Apocrypha. By ALEXANDER CRUDEN, M. A. From the Tenth London Edition, carefully Revised and Corrected by the Holy Scriptpres. To which is added an original Life of the Author. 8vo, pp. 856. New York: M. W. Dodd.

Cruden's Concordance was first published one hundred and twenty years ago, and during this long lapse of time no one has attempted to improve it, while all similar works have obtained but an inferior place, or a comparatively brief existence. Several compendiums or abridged editions of Cruden have been published in this country, but this is the first complete one that has been issued from the American press. A dictionary of the Bible, in which all the material words are ranged alphabetically, and the various places where they occur referred to, assisting one to find passages and to compare the several significations of the same word, must be acknowledged a most useful and valuable book for clergymen and all who "search the Scriptures." It is printed in a form and at a price adapted to general circulation.

- 17.—*Sandwich Islands*. Notes by a HAOLE. 12mo, pp. 493. New York; Harper & Brothers.

This is one of the most interesting and valuable books that have appeared concerning the Sandwich Islands. The writer visited this group in 1853, and tells us of almost everything of importance concerning the past and present condition of the manners and customs of the people. He argues earnestly for the annexation of the group to the United States, and considers that such an acquisition would not only be desirable, as affording auxiliaries to our commercial enterprise, but that such a step is absolutely necessary for the protection of the western confines of the United States. He believes, too, it would be beneficial to the Hawaiian people. The appendix to the work contains useful statistics, meteorological tables, treaties relating to the Sandwich Islands, and other matter of value. The book is well written, and the author expresses himself with much independence.

- 18.—*The Youth of Madame de Longueville; or New Revelations in the Seventeenth Century*. From the French of VICTOR COUSIN. By F. W. RICARD. 12mo, pp. 403. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The life of this remarkable woman has been written by Villefore, and M. Cousin informs the reader that it was not his intention to re-write it. He has, however, scanned with his philosophic mind the most reliable documents that history can employ, laying hands upon a great number of unpublished letters, which have enabled him to elucidate many obscure points in the life of Madame de Longueville. His production has the merit, at least, of furnishing the reader things hitherto unknown, or scarcely perceived. He lifts the veil for the first time, from the great convent of the Carmelites of the Rue Saint Jacques, which served as an asylum to so many wounded hearts in the seventeenth century. Mr. Ricard, the translator, has performed his work in a scholarly and satisfactory manner.

- 19.—*The Life of P. T. Barnum*. Written by HIMSELF. 12mo, pp. 404. New York: Redfield.

This much talked-about autobiography has made its appearance, and will be extensively read. Barnum has related his experience as farmer's boy, merchant, clerk, manager, showman, and bank president; including a full account of the "Joyce Heth," "Fejee Mermaid," and "Woolly Horse" humbugs. Numerous incidents and anecdotes of his youth and later years are related, many of which are droll or interesting. The Jenny Lind mania and campaign is fully described. The work is illustrated with a finely executed portrait on steel—a capital likeness—and numerous other good engravings, portraying a variety of scenes and things.

- 20.—*Life in the Clearings versus the Bush*. By Mrs. MOODY, author of "Roughing it in the Bush," etc. 12mo, pp. 306. New York: De Witt & Davenport.

Mrs. Moody, in her former work, pictured with a graphic pen Canadian life as she found it twenty years ago in the backwoods. In the present work she exhibits the increasing prosperity and greatness of the country of her adoption, and with a "mixture of prose and poetry" gives the reader a volume at once interesting and useful. Those who have read her former work with satisfaction, will, we feel quite sure, find this equally attractive.

- 21.—*Colton's Atlas of the World*. Illustrating Physical and Political Geography. By GEORGE W. COLTON. Accompanied by Descriptions, Geographical, Statistical, and Historical. By RICHARD S. FISHER, M. D. Parts 1, 2, 3. New York: J. H. Colton.

No expense seems to have been spared in the preparation of this work, which is creditable to the progress of art in our country. The maps are beautifully engraved on fine strong paper, and the lettering is legible and neat. The map of the United States is very minute in detail, the boundaries of counties and towns of every State being distinctly marked out; post towns, county towns designated, and everything pertaining to a model map has been attended to. The maps of the eastern hemisphere are worthy of high commendation, and surpass any American production in that department we remember to have seen. Recent geographical discoveries in our own continent, South America, and Africa, have not been neglected. The work has been highly spoken of by some of the best authorities, and we can safely commend the work for its elegance of execution, its elaborateness of design, and its apparent reliability.

- 22.—*Elementary Geology*. By EDWARD HITCHCOCK, D. D., LL. D., President of Amherst College, and Professor of Natural Theology and Geology. With an Introductory Notice. By JOHN PYE SMITH, D. D., F. R. S., &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 418. New York: Ivison & Phinney.

The first edition of this work was published in 1840, since which it has passed through twenty-four editions. This (twenty fifth) has been revised, enlarged, and adapted to the present advanced state of the science. It is, beyond all question, the best elementary book of geology extant, containing copious references to writers, where the different points here briefly discussed may be found amply treated, which will render it of great value not only to the student, but to the practical geologist.

- 23.—*The Singers' Companion*; containing a Choice Selection of Popular Songs, Duets, Glees, Catches, &c. With Music arranged for the Voice, Flute, Violin, and Piano. 12mo., pp. 287. New York: Stringer & Townsend.

We have in this excellent collection two hundred standard songs and melodies, embracing the greatest variety of the most exquisite pieces of the old and the new—serious and comic—love and sentimental—naval and military—national, Scotch, Irish, and English. The musical compositions have been selected with special regard to the sentiment of the poetry. It is doubtful whether so much good poetry and music embraced in one compact volume can elsewhere be found.

- 24.—*May Dundas*; or Passages in Young Life. By THOMAS GELDART. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

The design of this story is to illustrate the influence of example on young and unformed characters; and the author aims to prove that no education however sound, no associations however tender, nor affections however strong, are armor sufficiently invulnerable for the young soul in its conflict in the "battle-field of life." The only true defense against the assaults of evil, is to be found in steadfast Christian principle.

- 25.—*Little Folks' Own*; Stories, Sketches, Poems, and Paragraphs, designed to Amuse and Benefit the Young. By MRS. L. S. GOODWIN. 18mo., pp. 199. Boston: W. P. Pettridge & Co.

One of the best books we have seen for little folks, containing a variety of matter, combining instruction with interest. It is handsomely illustrated and gotten up, by the worthy publishers.

- 26.—*The Pride of Life*. A Novel. By LADY SCOTT. 12mo., pp. 384. New York: H. Long & Brother.

Few that have read the previously published productions of the lady author, and particularly her "Hen-pecked Husband," will forego the pleasure of perusing this equally attractive tale.

- 27.—*A History of England*. From the first Invasion by the Romans, &c. By JOHN LINGARD, D. D. 12mo., pp. 400. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

This, the seventh of the thirteen volumes, which are to complete this edition of a standard work, commences with the year 1547 and the reign of Edward VI., bringing the history down to 1567, including the reign of Mary and part of Elizabeth's.

- 28.—*Montague's Illinois and Missouri State Directory for 1854-5*: containing the Names, Occupations, and Post-office address of all the principal men of business in the States of Illinois and Missouri, classified and alphabetically arranged for easy reference. Also, a Register of the various offices of the State and County Governments, Homestead and Exemption Laws, and much other valuable information, useful and necessary to every business man; to which is appended a new and complete Business Directory of the City of St. Louis. 8vo., pp. 504. St. Louis: Wm. L. Montague. New York: sold by A. Ranney, 195 Broadway.

The title of this work indicates about all of its contents, which are well arranged. The compilation must have required great labor and much expense. A fine large map of the State of Illinois is included in the volume.

- 29.—*Way Down East; or Portraits of Yankee Life*. By SEBA SMITH, the original Jack Downing. 12mo., pp. 384. New York: J. C. Derby. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

These portraits by the inimitable "Jack Downing," contain graphic passages of Yankee life and character. Mr. Seba Smith is a writer of great delineative power, of rare humor and knowledge of human nature. These sketches are interesting as depicting the character and peculiarities of the Yankee, and many grotesque and funny incidents, all of which have a moral. The localities of these stories are not all "down east." We have a "Dutch Wedding," and an interesting specimen of a New York newsboy, "Billy Snub." The book is a capital one of its class, amusing and instructive.

- 30.—*Home Life; or a Peep across the Threshold*. By MRS. CAROLINE A. SOULE. With Illustrations by Billings. 18mo., pp. 249. Boston: A. Tompkins.

The twelve tales or sketches in this attractive volume relate to "home-life," the happiness of which, in the most agreeable phases, the fair writer seems to have enjoyed—at all events, she has been successful in the grouping of scenes that happen and characters that have existence every day around the hearth-stone. The events here transcribed, we are told—and we intuitively believe it—are faithful records from the diary of the author, and all have more truth than fiction in them. The illustrations by Billings are excellent.

- 31.—*Epitome of Spiritual Intercourse: a Condensed View of Spiritualism in its Scriptural, Historical, Actual, and Scientific Aspects; its Relations to Christianity, Insanity, Psychometry, and Social Reform. Manifestations in Nova Scotia; important Communications from the Spirits of Sir John Franklin and Rev. William Wishart, with Evidences of Identity, and Directions for Developing Mediums*. By ALFRED CRIDGE, of Canada, Writing Medium. Boston: Bela Marsh.

The copious title quoted sufficiently indicates the character and contents of this pamphlet of one hundred and eight octavo pages.

- 32.—*A Lyric of the Morning Land*. By THOMAS L. HARRIS. 12mo., pp. 256. New York: Partridge & Brittan.

Mr. Harris belongs to the new order of "Spiritualists," and whether writing in prose or verse, professes to speak as spirits "out of the body" give him utterance. However that may be, the *Lyric of the Morning Land* is full of poetic fire, genius, and instruction. We commend this last contribution from "spirit-land" to all lovers of genuine, lofty, soul-stirring poetry.

- 33.—*Little Folks' Own*. Stories, Sketches, Poems, and Paragraphs, designed to amuse and benefit the Young. By MRS. L. S. GOODWIN. 18mo., pp. 199. Boston: W. P. Frettridge & Co.

The contents and design of this pretty volume are described in the title. The authoress possesses in a good degree the tact or talent of writing so as to interest and improve young minds. The illustrations are well designed and cleverly engraved.

- 34.—*Martin Merridale X His Mark*. By PAUL CREYTON. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

This serial story is brought to a close. It does great credit to the genius of the clever author. The illustrations which accompany each part are capital. The characters are well drawn, and it has scenes and passages that would not detract from Dickens' graphic "limning."

- 35.—*Life-Story of Hosea Ballou*. For the Young. By Maturin M. Ballou. With Illustrations by Billings. 18mo., pp. 128. Boston: A. Tompkins.

We noticed in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine* the more elaborate life of the late Hosea Ballou in terms of deserved commendation. The author of that memoir, the worthy son of a worthy father, has in the present "life-story" gathered and grouped the principal features of his father's life, and adapted it to the comprehension and interest of youth, so that it will afford pleasure and profit in the perusal.

- 36.—*The Newsboy*. 12mo., pp. 528. New York: J. C. Derby. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

We know not how many thousand copies of this story have been sold; we believe, however, that the supply has scarcely kept pace with the demand. The hero, a New York newsboy, is painted, (with rare exceptions,) to the life, and the only wonder is, that a woman has succeeded so well in her delineations of characters so marked and peculiar. We commend it to all who would obtain some glimpses of every-day life in the great commercial emporium of our country.

- 37.—*Popery Adjudged; or the Roman Catholic Church Weighed in the Balance of God's Word, and found wanting*. Extracted from the Works of Emanuel Swedenborg. With an Introduction and Appendix. 8vo., pp. 140. Boston: Redding & Co.

This large pamphlet contains a sketch of Swedenborg and his writings, introductory to all that he wrote in regard to "the evils and falses of Popery." Its publication at this time was undoubtedly suggested by what is termed the "Know Nothing" movement.

- 38.—*The Two Sisters; or Principle and Practice*. 18mo., pp. 298. New York: Stanford & Swords.

This story is dedicated to the Bishops and Clergy of the Protestant Episcopal Church by the author, "in the earnest hope that it may meet their approval." From the motto adopted—"I love the Church, the holy Church, that o'er our life presides," and the dedication, the design of the author may be inferred, which is to set forth the peculiar teachings and mode of worship of the church to which the writer belongs. It is more attractive, and more likely to effect its object than an essay on the subject.

- 39.—*Chesnut Wood*. A Tale. By LILIE LINDEN. In 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 359 and 360. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The fair author of this story certainly possesses most of the qualifications of a successful novelist, as the reader will probably discover in the reading. The scene is laid not far from the spot so celebrated as having given birth to that beautiful Legend of the Sleepy Hollow.

- 40.—*Fred Vernon; or the Victim of Avarice*. By J. F. SMITH, author of "Minnie Grey," "Gus Howard," "Harry Ashton," "Ellen de Vere," "Amy Lawrence," etc., etc. pp. 325. New York: Garrett & Co.

The author of this novel is a prolific writer of historical romances. The interest awakened in the first part of the book is well sustained to the end. The story will entertain an intelligent and numerous class of readers.

- 41.—*Life and its Aims*. In two Parts. Part 1, the Ideal—Part 2, the Actual. 12mo. pp. 342. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

In this story the author attempts to portray ideal and actual life. Life he regards as a mystery, which though we ever seek to solve, ever baffles investigation. But this fact does not deter the author from his endeavors to discover its bearings and possible results.

- 42.—*Daily Journal for 1855*. New York: Francis & Loutrel.

The publishers, who are extensive manufacturing stationers, at 77 Maiden Lane, issue annually a tasty and neat blank book, which is just such a one as we want, and the one we use, for a daily record.

- 43.—*The Lady's Almanac for 1855*. pp. 125. Boston: John P. Jewett.

Handsomely illustrated, with some literary selections. A convenient pocket companion and good almanac.

- 44.—*Armenia: A Year at Erzeroom and upon the Frontiers of Russia, Turkey, and Persia.* By HON. ROBERT CURZON, author of "Visits to the Monasteries of the Levant." Maps and Wood-cuts. 12mo., pp. 226. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The boundary line between Turkey and Persia had for centuries been unsettled, and as a consequence, the roads in these wild mountainous districts were beset with Koor-dish robbers, and the pillage of merchandise being transported, and the murder of travelers was constantly going on. A border warfare had been waged between the Koords and their Persian neighbors, and the invading, plundering, and burning of the villages of each was considered a proper as well as profitable business. The Turkish and Persian governments, in order to stop these proceedings, requested the aid of England and Russia, and accordingly a commission from each of those countries was appointed, who, together with the plenipotentiaries of Turkey and Persia, after years of discussion, settled the matter. The author was attached to the commission, and has produced a volume of travels and adventures, with some account of the manners and customs of the people. His style does not lack vigor and vivacity, and in short the book is an interesting and valuable one on a country hitherto but little known.

- 45.—*Comparative Anatomy.* By C. TH. VON SIEBOLD and H. STANNIUS. Translated from the German, and edited with Notes and Additions, recording the recent progress of the Science, by Waldo J. Burnett, M. D. *Anatomy of the Invertebrata.* By C. TH. VON SIEBOLD. 8vo., pp. 470. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

The *Lehrbuch der verglücken Anatomie* of Von Siebold and Stannius is one with which all anatomists are acquainted, and one which is regarded as the most complete and comprehensive work of its kind extant. The present volume contains that portion of the labors of these eminent German anatomists devoted to the invertebrata—a part rich in the results of microscopic researches. The translator and editor has affixed notes and additions which refer "almost invariably to some point treated of in the text or notes of the original, and for the most part relate to the correction, confirmation, or extension of some statement there made." Dr. Burnett appears to have given much labor and careful research to the subject, and the work is a valuable accession to our scientific literature.

- 46.—*The Poetical Works of Henry Howard, Earl of Surry.* With a Memoir. 18mo., pp. 190. *The Poetical Works of Sir Thomas Wyatt.* With a Memoir. 18mo., pp. 242. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. New York: Evans & Dickerson.

The Earl of Surry and Sir Thomas Wyatt were contemporary poets and friends, and figured in the court of Henry VIII. The former was a brave soldier as well as poet, who finally fell under the displeasure of his king, and was beheaded in 1574. His poetry is melodious and remarkably correct in style, as well as in purity of expression. He was the first to introduce the sonnet and blank verse into English poetry. The amorous poetry of Surry had a fellow-laborer in Sir Thomas Wyatt. The songs and sonnets of the latter, in praise of his mistress, and expressive of the various feelings while under the tender passion, possess refinement and some share of poetical feeling. These two volumes appropriately belong to Little, Brown & Co.'s unrivaled library edition of the "British Poets."

- 47.—*The Illustrated Natural History.* By Rev. J. G. WOOD. With four hundred and fifty original designs. By WILLIAM HARVEY. 12mo., pp. 524. New York: Harper & Brothers.

It appears to have been the aim of the author to furnish a work on natural history of a popular character, and at the same time to unite accuracy of information and systematic arrangement with brevity and simplicity of treatment. Mr. Wood is a true naturalist, and sees as much beauty in a toad, spider, or snake, as in any of those animals which we are accustomed to consider models of beauty, and as a devout naturalist (without cant) he "looks through nature up to nature's God."

- 48.—*Uterine Diseases and Displacements.* A Practical Treatise on the various Diseases, Malformations, and Structural Derangements of the Uterus and its Appendages. By R. T. TRALL, M. D. Illustrated with Colored Engravings. 12mo., pp. 168. New York: Fowlers & Wells.

This work is designed to supply a real want in medical science. The work is copiously illustrated with appropriate colored drawings, and though designed for the medical profession of every school, thousands of suffering females will find among its contents hints which will guide them to "health restored and happiness renewed."